

Deputies from the four Quarters of the Globe do homage to Britannia, who dismisses them with the Olive Branch of Peace.

THE
Britannic Magazine;
Or entertaining Repository of
HEROIC ADVENTURES.
And Memorable Exploits.

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DIRECTIONS TO THE BINDER.

The Britannic Magazine, and Wars of England, are to be divided into two diſtinct volumes. The Engraved Title-page is to be affixed to the Miſcellaneous part; and the whole of the Plates are to be placed at the End of the Volume of the Wars of England, until that Work is completed, when particular directions will be given for placing each plate in its proper place. It is recommended to have theſe volumes only bound up in Boards for the preſent; ſo that by the time the Hiſtorical part is completed, the printing will be ſufficiently dry, and the whole may be bound together with greater uniformity and elegance.

THE

THE

BRITANNIC MAGAZINE,

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HEROIC ADVENTURES,

AND MEMORABLE EXPLOITS.

LORD MACARTNEY's EMBASSY TO CHINA. With an intereſting DESCRIPTION of that EXTENSIVE EMPIRE.

LORD MACARTNEY having been lately (1793) inveſted with an important embaſſy to the Emperor of China, for the expreſs purpoſe of opening a more extenſive commerce, we truſt the following entertaining account of the cuſtoms, manners, trade, policy, and preſent ſtate, of that extenſive empire, will prove acceptable to our readers.

China is a country of Aſia, ſituated on the moſt eaſterly part of that continent. It is bounded on the north by Tartary; from which it is divided, partly by a prodigious wall of 1500 miles in length, and partly by high, craggy, and inacceſſible, mountains. On the eaſt, it is bounded by the ocean; on the weſt, by part of the Mogul's empire, and India beyond the Ganges, from which it is parted by other ridges of high mountains and ſandy deſerts; on the ſouth, it is bounded partly by the kingdoms of Lao, Tonquin, Ava, and Cochin-China, and partly by the ſouthern or Indian ſea, which flows between it and the Philippine iſlands. There are ſeveral ways of computing its length and breadth. According to ſome of theſe, it is reckoned 1269, 1600, or 1800, miles in length, and as much in breadth; however, by the beſt and lateſt accounts, this vaſt country is ſomewhat of an oval form, the breadth being leſs than the length by little more than a fourth part.

The origin of all nations is involved in obſcurity and fable; but that of the Chineſe much more ſo than any other. Every nation is inclined to aſſume too high an antiquity to itſelf, but the Chineſe carry theirs beyond all bounds. Indeed, though no people on earth are more exact in keeping records of every memorable tranſaction, yet ſuch is the genius of the Chineſe for ſuperſtition and fable, that the firſt part of their hiſtory is deſervedly contemned by every rational perſon. What contributes more to the uncertainty of the Chineſe hiſtory is, that neither we, nor they themſelves, have any thing but fragments of their ancient hiſtorical books; for, about 213 years before Chriſt, the reigning emperor cauſed all the books in the empire to be burned, except thoſe written by lawyers and phyſicians. Nay, the more effectually to deſtroy the memory of every thing contained in them, he commanded a great number of learned men to be buried alive, leſt, from their memories, they ſhould commit to writing ſomething of the true memoirs of the empire. The inaccuracy of the Chineſe annals is complained of even by their

their moſt reſpected author Confucius himſelf; who alſo affirms, that, before his time, many of the oldeſt materials for writing ſuch annals had been deſtroyed.

As the Chineſe, contrary to the practice of almoſt all nations, never ſought to conquer other countries, but rather to improve and content themſelves with their own, their hiſtory for many ages furniſhes nothing remarkable.

The armies of this empire are proportioned to its vaſt extent and population; being computed in time of peace at more than 700,000. Their pay amounts to about two-pence halfpenny and a meaſure of rice per day, though ſome of them have double pay, and the emperor furniſhes a horſe, and the horſeman receives two meaſures of ſmall beans for his daily ſubſiſtence; the arrears of the army being punctually paid up every three months.

The arms of a horſeman are, a helmet, cuiraſs, lance, and ſabre; thoſe of a foot-ſoldier are a pike and a ſabre; ſome have fuſees, and others bows and arrows. All theſe are carefully inſpected at every review; and if any of them are found in the leaſt ruſted, or otherwiſe in bad condition, the poſſeſſor is inſtantly puniſhed; if a Chineſe, with thirty or forty blows of a ſtick; or, if a Tartar, with as many laſhes.

Though the uſe of gun-powder is certainly very ancient in China, it appears to have been afterwards totally loſt, at leaſt fire-arms ſeem to have been almoſt entirely unknown ſome centuries ago. Three or four cannon were to be ſeen at that time about the gates of Nanking; but not a ſingle perſon in China knew how to make uſe of them; ſo that, in 1621, when the city of Macao made a preſent of three pieces of artillery to the emperor, it was found neceſſary alſo to ſend three men to load them. The utility of theſe weapons was quickly perceived by the execution which the three cannon did againſt the Tartars, at that time advanced as far as the great wall. When the invaders threatened to return, the mandarins of arms gave it as their opinion, that cannons were the beſt arms they could make uſe of againſt them. They were then taught the art of caſting cannon by F. Adam Schaal and Verbieſt, two Jeſuit miſſionaries, and their artillery was increaſed to the number of 320 pieces; at the ſame time that they were inſtructed in the method of fortifying towns and conſtructing fortreſſes and other buildings according to the rules of modern architecture.

The beſt ſoldiers in China are procured from the three northern provinces, the others being ſeldom called forth, but allowed to remain at peace with their families; indeed there is not often occaſion for exerting their military talents, unleſs it be in the quelling of an inſurrection, when a mandarin or governor uſually accompanies them. They march in a very tumultuous manner, but want neither ſkill nor agility in performing their different evolutions. They, in general, handle a ſabre well, and ſhoot very dexterouſly with bows and arrows. There are in China more than 2000 places of arms; and thro' the different provinces there are diſperſed about 3000 towers or caſtles, all of them defended by garriſons. Soldiers continually mount guard there; and, on the firſt appearance of tumult, the neareſt centinel makes a ſignal from the top of the tower, by hoiſting a flag in the daytime, or lighting a torch in the night; when the neighbouring garriſons immediately repair to the place where their preſence is neceſſary.

The principal defence of the empire againſt a foreign enemy is the great wall which ſeparates China from Tartary, extending more than 1500 miles in length, and of ſuch thickneſs that ſix horſemen may eaſily ride abreaſt upon it. It is flanked with towers two bow-ſhots diſtant from one another; and it is ſaid that one third of the able-bodied men in the empire were employed in conſtructing it. The workmen were ordered, under pain of death, to place the materials ſo cloſely, that not the leaſt entrance might be afforded for any inſtrument of iron; and thus the work was conſtructed with ſuch ſolidity, that it is ſtill almoſt entire, though 2000 years have elapſed ſince it was conſtructed. This extraordinary work is carried on not only through the low lands and valleys, but

over

over hills and mountains; the height of one of which was computed by F. Verbieſt at 1236 feet above the level of the ſpot where he ſtood. According to F. Martini, it begins at the gulph of Lea-tong, and reaches to the mountains near the city of Kin on the Yellow River; between which places it meets with no interruption except to the north of the city of Suen in the province of Pecheli, where it is interrupted by a ridge of hideous and inacceſſible mountains, to which it is cloſely united. It is likewiſe interrupted by the river Hoang-ho; but for others of an inferior ſize arches have been conſtructed, through which the water paſſes freely. Mr. Bell informs us, that it is carried acroſs rivers, and over the tops of the higheſt hills, without the leaſt interruption, keeping nearly along that circular range of barren rocks which incloſes the country; and, after running about 1200 miles, ends in impaſſable mountains and ſandy deſerts. The foundation conſiſts of large blocks of ſtone laid in mortar; but all the reſt is of brick. The whole is ſo ſtrong and well built, that it ſcarcely needs any repairs; and, in the dry climate in which it ſtands, may remain in the ſame condition for many ages. When carried over ſteep rocks, where no horſe can paſs, it is about fifteen or twenty feet high; but, when running through a valley, or croſſing a river, it is about thirty feet high, with ſquare towers and embraſures at equal diſtances. The top is flat, and paved with cut ſtone; and, where it riſes over a rock or eminence, there is an aſcent made by an eaſy ſtone ſtair. "This wall (our author adds) was begun and completely finiſhed in the ſhort ſpace of five years; and it is reported, that the labourers ſtood ſo cloſe for many miles, that they could hand the materials from one to another. This ſeems the more probable, as the rugged rocks among which it is built muſt have prevented all uſe of carriages; and neither clay for making bricks, nor any kind of cement, are to be found among them."

The commerce of China is under the inſpection of the tribunal of finances; but on this ſubject the Chineſe entertain an opinion quite different from that of the Europeans. Commerce, according to them, is only uſeful as far as it eaſes the people of their ſuperfluities, and procures them neceſſaries. For this reaſon they conſider even that which is carried on at Canton as prejudicial to the intereſt of the empire: "They take from us (ſay the Chineſe) our ſilks, teas, and porcelain; the price of theſe articles is raiſed thro' all the provinces: ſuch a trade therefore cannot be beneficial. The money brought us by Europeans, and the high-priced baubles which accompany it, are mere ſuperfluities to ſuch a ſtate as ours. We have no occaſion for more bullion than what may be neceſſary to anſwer the exigencies of government, and to ſupply the relative wants of individuals. It was ſaid by Kouan-tſe, two thouſand years ago, That the money introduced does not enrich a kingdom in any other way than as it is introduced by commerce. No commerce can be advantageous long, but that which conſiſts in a mutual exchange of things neceſſary or uſeful. That trade, whether carried on by barter or money, which has for its object the importing of articles that tend to the gratification of pride, luxury, or curioſity, always ſuppoſes the exiſtence of luxury: but luxury, which is an abundance of ſuperfluities among certain claſſes of people, ſuppoſes the want of neceſſaries among a great many others. The more horſes the rich put to their carriages, the greater will be the number of thoſe who are obliged to walk on foot; the larger and more magnificent their houſes are, ſo much the more confined and wretched muſt thoſe of the poor be; and the more their tables are covered with a variety of diſhes, the more muſt the number of thoſe increaſe who are under the neceſſity of feeding upon plain rice. Men, united by ſociety in a large and populous kingdom, can employ their induſtry, talents, and economy, to no better purpoſes than to provide neceſſaries for all, and procure convenience for ſome."

The only commerce conſidered by the Chineſe as advantageous to their empire, is that with Ruſſia and Tartary; by which they are ſupplied with thoſe furs ſo neceſſary in the northern

provinces. The diſputes concerning the limits of the reſpective empires of Ruſſia and China ſeem to have paved the way to this commerce. Theſe diſputes were ſettled by treaty on the 27th of Auguſt 1689, under the reign of Ivan and Peter Alexiowitz. The chief of the embaſſy on the part of Ruſſia was Golovin governor of Siberia; and two Jeſuits were deputed on the part of the Emperor of China; the conferences were held in Latin, with a German in the Ruſſian ambaſſador's train, who was acquainted with that language. By this treaty, the Ruſſians obtained a regular and permanent trade with China, which they had long deſired; but in return they yielded up a large territory, beſides the navigation of the river Amour. The firſt intercourſe had taken place in the beginning of the 17th century; at which time a ſmall quantity of Chineſe merchandize was procured by ſome Ruſſian merchants from the Kalmuck Tartars. The rapid and profitable ſale of theſe commodities encouraged certain Siberian wayvodes to attempt a direct and open communication with China. For this purpoſe ſeveral deputations were ſent to the emperor; and, though they failed of obtaining the grant of a regular commerce, their attempts were attended with ſome conſequences of importance. Thus the Ruſſian merchants were tempted to ſend traders occaſionally to Peking; by which means a faint connection was preſerved with that metropolis. This commerce, however, was at laſt interrupted by the commencement of hoſtilities on the river Amour; but, after the concluſion of the treaty in 1689, was reſumed with uncommon alacrity on the part of the Ruſſians: and the advantages thence ariſing were found to be ſo conſiderable, that a deſign of enlarging it was formed by Peter the Great. Iſbrand Ides, a native of the duchy of Holſtein, then in the Ruſſian ſervice, was therefore diſpatched to Peking in 1692; by whoſe means the liberty of trade, before confined to individuals, was now extended to caravans. In the mean time, private merchants continued to trade as before, not only with the Chineſe, but alſo at the head-quarters of the Mogul Tartars. The camp of theſe roving Tartars, which was generally ſtationed near the confluence of the Orhon and Toula rivers, between the ſouthern frontiers of Siberia and the Mogul deſert, thus became the ſeat of an annual fair. Complaints however were ſoon made of the diſorderly behaviour of the Ruſſians; on which the Chineſe monarch threatened to expel them from his dominions entirely, and to allow them neither to trade with the Chineſe nor Moguls. This produced another embaſſy to Peking in 1719, when matters were again adjuſted to the ſatisfaction of both parties. The reconciliation was of no long duration; for, the Ruſſians having ſoon renewed their diſorderly behaviour, an order for their expulſion was iſſued in 1722, and all intercourſe between the two nations forbidden. The differences were once more made up in 1727, and a caravan allowed to go to Peking once in three years, provided it conſiſted of no more than a hundred perſons; and that during their ſtay their expences ſhould not, as formerly, be defrayed by the Emperor of China. The Ruſſians at the ſame time obtained permiſſion to build a church within the precincts of the caravanſera; and four prieſts were allowed to reſide at Peking for the celebration of divine ſervice; the ſame indulgence being granted to ſome Ruſſian ſcholars, for the purpoſe of learning the Chineſe language, and qualifying themſelves for being interpreters between the two nations. This intercourſe continued till the year 1755; ſince which time no more caravans have been ſent to China. It was firſt interrupted by a miſunderſtanding betwixt the two courts; and, though that difference was afterwards made up, no caravans have been ſent ever ſince. The Empreſs of Ruſſia, ſenſible that the monopoly of the fur-trade (which was entirely confined to the caravans belonging to the crown, and prohibited to individuals) was prejudicial to commerce, gave it up in favour of her ſubjects in 1762; and the centre of commerce between the two nations is now at Kiatka. Here the trade is entirely carried on by barter. The Ruſſians are prohibited from exporting their own coin; finding it more

more advantageous to take goods in exchange than to receive bullion at the Chineſe ſtandard. The principal exports from Ruſſia are furs of different kinds; the moſt valuable of which are thoſe of ſea-otters, beavers, wolves, foxes, martins, ſables, and ermines; the greater part of which are brought from Siberia and the newly-diſcovered iſlands; but, as they cannot ſupply the demand, there is a neceſſity for importing foreign furs to Peterſbugh, which are afterwards ſent to Kiatka. Various kinds of cloth are likewiſe ſent to China, as well as hardware, and live cattle, ſuch as horſes, camels, &c. The exports from China are, raw and manufactured ſilks, cotton, porcelain, rhubark, muſk, &c. The government of Ruſſia likewiſe reſerves to itſelf the excluſive privilge of purchaſing rhubarb. It is brought to Kiatka by ſome Buckharian merchants, who have entered into a contract to ſupply the crown with it in exchange for furs: the exportation of the beſt rhubarb is forbidden under ſevere penalties, but yet it is procured in ſufficient quantities, ſometimes by clandeſtinely mixing it with inferior roots, and ſometimes by ſmuggling it directly.

It may here be obſerved, that the Chineſe merchants are as diſhoneſt and knaviſh a race as any that exiſt. The moſt frequented fairs of Europe afford but a faint idea of the immenſe number of buyers and ſellers with which the large cities of China are continually crowded; and we may almoſt ſay, that one-half are employed in over-reaching the other. It is, above all, againſt ſtrangers that the Chineſe merchants exerciſe, without any ſenſe of ſhame, their inſatiable rapacity. Of this, F. du Halde gives a ſtriking example, which might be ſupported by many others: The captain of an Engliſh veſſel bargained with a Chineſe merchant at Canton for ſeveral bales of ſilk, which the latter was to provide againſt a certain time. When they were ready, the captain went with his interpreter to the houſe of the Chineſe merchant to examine whether they were ſound and in good condition. On opening the firſt bale, he found it according to his wiſh; but all the reſt were damaged and good for nothing. The captain on this fell into a great paſſion, and reproached the merchant in the ſevereſt terms for his diſhoneſty. The Chineſe, after having heard him for ſome time with great coolneſs, replied, "Blame, ſir, your knave of an interpreter: for he aſſured me that you would not inſpect the bales."

The lower claſs of people are, above all, very dexterous in counterfeiting and adulterating every thing they ſell. Sometimes you think you have bought a capon, and you receive nothing but ſkin; all the reſt has been ſcooped out, and the place ſo ingeniouſly filled, that the deception cannot be diſcovered till the moment you begin to eat it. The counterfeit hams of China have been often mentioned. They are made of a piece of wood cut in the form of a ham, and coated over with a certain kind of earth which is covered with hog's ſkin. The whole is ſo curiouſly painted and prepared, that a knife is neceſſary to detect the fraud. Mr. Oſbeck relates, that having one day obſerved a blind man carrying about for ſale ſome of thoſe trees called by the Chineſe fokei, he purchaſed one, which, to appearance, had fine double red and white flowers; but, on cloſer examination, he found that the flowers were taken from another tree, and that one calyx was ſo neatly fixed into the other, with nails made of bamboo, that he ſhould ſcarcely have diſcovered the deceit, had not the flowers begun to wither. The tree itſelf had buds, but not one open flower.

The robbers in China ſignalize themſelves alſo by the dexterity and ingenuity which they diſplay in their profeſſion. They ſeldom have recourſe to acts of violence, but introduce themſelves into a houſe either privately or by forming ſome connection with the family. It is as difficult in China to avoid robbery as it is to apprehend the criminal in the fact. If we are deſirous of finding among the Chineſe openneſs of temper, benevolence, friendſhip, and, laſtly, virtue, we muſt not ſeek for it in cities, but in the boſom of the country, among that claſs of men who have devoted themſelves to labour and agriculture. A Chineſe ruſtic often diſcovers moral qualities which would add luſtre to the charac-

ter

ter of men of the moſt exalted rank. It appears that rural life naturally inſpires ſentiments of benevolence; by continually receiving the gifts of nature, the mind is enlarged, and men are inſenſibly accuſtomed to diffuſe them to thoſe around them.

The internal commerce of China is much greater than that of all Europe; but its foreign trade is by no means equal to that of any of the grand European powers. Its internal commerce is greatly faciliated by the vaſt number of canals and rivers with which the country is interſected. The Chineſe, however, are not at all fitted for maritime commerce: few of their veſſels go beyond the ſtraits of Sunda; their longeſt voyages to Malacca extend only as far as Acheen, towards the ſtraits of Batavia, and northward to Japan.

Their commerce with the laſt-mentioned iſland, conſidering the articles of exchange which they procure at Camboya or Siam, produces them cent. per cent. Their trade with the Manillas brings only about fifty per cent. Their profit is more conſiderable about Batavia; and the Dutch ſpare no pains to invite them to traffic at their ſettlements. The Chineſe traders go alſo, tho' not very frequently, to Acheen, Malacca, Thor, Patan, and Ligor, belonging to Siam and Cochin China; from whence they bring gold and tin, together with ſome objects of luxury for the table. A great obſtacle to the foreign commerce of the Chineſe is their indifference about maritime affairs, and the bad conſtruction of their veſſels. This they themſelves acknowledge; but ſay, that any attempt to remove it would be derogating from the laws and ſubverting the conſtitution of the empire.

(To be continued.)

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

LOVE, in its uſual and more appropriate ſignification, may be defined, "that affection which, being compounded of animal deſire, eſteem, and benevolence, becomes the bond of attachment and union between individuals of the different ſexes; and makes them feel in the ſociety of each other a ſpecies of happineſs which they experience no where elſe." We call it an affection rather than a paſſion, becauſe it involves a deſire of the happineſs of its object: and that its conſtituent parts are thoſe which have been juſt enumerated, we ſhall firſt endeavour to prove, and then proceed to trace its riſe and progreſs from a ſelfiſh appetite to a generous ſentiment.

Animal deſire is the actual energy of the ſenſual appetite: and that it is an eſſential part of the complex affection, which is properly called love, is apparent from this conſideration, that, tho' a man may have ſentiments of eſteem and benevolence towards women who are both old and ugly, he never ſuppoſes himſelf to be in love with any woman to whom he feels not the ſenſual appetite to have a ſtronger tendency than to other individuals of her ſex. On the other hand, that animal deſire alone cannot be called the affection of love is evident; becauſe he who gratifies ſuch a deſire without eſteeming its object, and wiſhing to communicate at the ſame time that he receives enjoyment, loves not the woman, but himſelf. Mere animal deſire has nothing in view but the ſpecies and ſex of its object; and, before it makes a ſelection, it muſt be combined with ſentiments very different from itſelf. The firſt ſentiment with which it is combined, and by which a man is induced to prefer one woman to another, ſeems to be that by which we are delighted with gracefulneſs of perſon, regularity of features, and beauty of complexion. It is not indeed to be denied that there is ſomething irreſiſtible in female beauty. The moſt ſevere will not pretend, that they do not feel an immediate prepoſſeſſion in favour of a handſome woman; but this prepoſſeſſion, even when combined with animal deſire, does not conſtitute the whole of that affection which is called love. Savages feel the influence of the ſenſual appetite, and it is extremely probable that they have ſome ideas of beauty; but among ſavages the affection of love is ſeldom felt.

Even

Even among the lower orders in civil ſociety it ſeems to be a very groſs paſſion, and to have in it more of the ſelfiſhneſs of appetite than of the generoſity of eſteem. To theſe obſervations many exceptions will no doubt be found: but we ſpeak of ſavages in general, and of the great body of the labouring poor, who in the choice of their mates do not ſtudy—who indeed are incapable of ſtudying—that rectitude of mind and thoſe delicacies of ſentiment, without which neither man nor woman can deſerve to be eſteemed.

In the ſavage ſtate, and even in the firſt ſtages of refinement, the bond of union between the ſexes ſeems to conſiſt of nothing more than mere animal deſire and inſtinctive tenderneſs for their infant progeny. The former impels them to unite for the propagation of the ſpecies; and the latter preſerves the union till the children, who are the fruit of it, be able to provide for their own ſubſiſtence. That in ſuch unions, whether caſual or permanent, there is no mutual eſteem and benevolence, is apparent from the ſtate of ſubjection in which women are held in rude and uncultivated nations, as well as from the manner in which marriages are in ſuch nations contracted.

Sweetneſs of temper, a capital article with us in the female character, diſplays itſelf externally in mild looks and gentle manners, and is the firſt and perhaps the moſt powerful inducement to love in a cultivated mind. But ſuch graces (ſays an ingenious writer) are ſcarcely diſcernible in a female ſavage; and even in the moſt poliſhed woman would not be perceived by a male ſavage. Amongſt ſavages, ſtrength and boldneſs are the only valuable qualities: in theſe, females are miſerably deficient; for which reaſon they are contemned by the males as beings of an inferior order. The North American tribes glory in idleneſs: the drudgery of labour degrades a man in their opinion, and is proper for women only. To join young perſons in marriage is accordingly the buſineſs of the parents; and it would be unpardonable meanneſs in the bridegroom to ſhew any fondneſs for the bride. In Guiana a woman never eats with her huſband, but, after every meal, attends him with water for waſhing; and, in the Carribee iſlands, ſhe is not permitted to eat in the preſence of her huſband. Dampier obſerves in general, that, among all the wild nations with which he was acquainted, the women carry the burdens, while the men walk before, and carry nothing but their arms; and that women even of the higheſt rank are not better treated. In Siberia, and even in Ruſſia, the capital excepted, men till very lately treated their wives in every reſpect like ſlaves. It might indeed be thought, that animal deſire, were there nothing elſe, ſhould have raiſed women to ſome degree of eſtimation among men; but male ſavages, utter ſtrangers to decency and refinement, gratify animal deſire with as little ceremony as they do hunger or thirſt.

Hence it was that in the early ages of ſociety a man purchaſed a woman to be his wife as one purchaſes an ox or a ſheep to be food; and valued her only as ſhe contributed to his ſenſual gratification. Inſtances innumerable might be collected from every nation of which we are acquainted with the early hiſtory; but we ſhall content ourſelves with mentioning a few. Abraham bought Rebecca, and gave her to his ſon Iſaac for a wife. Jacob, having nothing elſe to give, ſerved Laban fourteen years for two wives. To David, demanding Saul's daughter in marriage, it was ſaid, "The king deſireth not any dowry, but an hundred foreſkins of the Philiſtines." In the Iliad, Agamemnon offers his daughter to Achilles for a wife; and ſays, that he would not demand for her any price. By the laws of Ethelbert king of England, a man who committed adultery with his neighbour's wife was obliged to pay the huſband a fine, and to buy him another wife. But it is needleſs to multiply inſtances; the practice has prevailed univerſally among nations emerging from the ſavage ſtate, or in the rudeſt ſtage of ſociety; and, wherever it prevailed, men could not poſſibly have for the fair ſex any of that tender regard and eſteem which conſtitute ſo eſſential a part of the complex affection of love.

Accordingly we find the magnanimous Achilles an abſolute ſtranger to

that generous affection, though his heart was ſuſceptible of the warmeſt and pureſt friendſhip. His attachment to Patroclus was ſo heroically diſintereſted, that he willingly ſacrificed his own life to revenge the death of his friend; but, when Agamemnon threatened to rob him of his favourite female captive, though he felt the inſult offered to his pride, he never ſpoke of the woman but as a ſlave whom he was concerned to preſerve in point of honour, and as a teſtimony of his glory. Hence it is that we never hear him mention her but as his ſpoil, the reward of war, or the gift which the Grecians gave him:

And dar'ſt thou threat to ſnatch my prize away,
Due to the deeds of many a dreadful day?
A prize as ſmall, O tyrant! match'd with thine,
As thy own actions if compar'd with mine.
Thine in each conqueſt is the wealthy prey,
Though mine the ſweat and danger of the day.
Some trivial preſent to my ſhips I bear,
Or barren praiſes pay the wounds of war.

And again, after upbraiding the general with his tyranny and want of regard to merit, he adds, with the greateſt indifference as to the charms of the woman,

Seize on Briſeis, whom the Grecians doom'd
My prize of war, yet tamely ſee reſum'd;
And ſeize ſecure; no more Achilles draws
His conquering ſword in any woman's cauſe
The gods command me to forgive the paſt;
But let this firſt invaſion be the laſt:
For know, thy blood, when next thou dar'ſt invade,
Shall ſtream in vengeance on my reeking blade.

Pope has made the language of this rough warrior leſs inconſiſtent with the peculiar reſentment natural to an injured lover than it is in the original; but from the laſt-quoted paſſage, even as tranſlated by him, it is apparent that Achilles would have been equally hurt had Agamemnon threatened to deprive him of any other part of his plunder. Accordingly he yields up Briſeis, not in grief for a miſtreſs whom he loſes, but in ſullenneſs for an injury that is done him. Nor let it be imagined, that this coldneſs proceeded from the pride of the hero, which would not permit him to acknowledge his love of a captive. With the generous affection of love, captives and princeſſes were equally incapable of inſpiring him. He repeatedly affirmed indeed that he delighted in his fair Lyrneſſian ſlave, but it was only as an inſtrument of ſenſual gratification; for, as to every thing elſe in a woman, he was ſo totally indifferent, that he declared he would not, when he ſhould be diſpoſed to marry, give himſelf the trouble to make a choice, but leave the whole matter to his father:

If heav'n reſtores me to my realms with life,
The rev'rend Peleus ſhall elect my wife.

Even Agamemnon, of whom Pope and Madam Dacier think more favourably as a lover, ſpeaks the very ſame language when mentioning his favourite captive Chryſeis. In his furious debate with Achilles he calls her indeed

A maid unmatch'd in manners as in face,
Skill'd in each art, and crown'd with every grace.

And adds,

Not half ſo dear were Clytemneſtra's charms,
When firſt her blooming beauties bleſs'd my arms.

But this was ſaid merely to enhance the value of the prize, which, for the public good, he was about to reſign; for that ſhe was dear to him only as miniſtering to his pleaſure is paſtdiſpute from the language which he had previouſly held with her father, as well as from his requiring grateful Greece to pay a juſt equivalent, and to repair his private loſs. A man who really loved would have thought nothing an equivalent for the object of his love; much leſs would he have inſinuated to her father a poſſibility of his diſmiſſing from his embrace a woman whom he eſteemed, when time ſhould have robbed her of every youthful grace.

Since, then, it is ſo apparent, that in the heroic age of Greece even princes

ces and kings were ſtrangers to the generous affection of love, it needs not occaſion much ſurpriſe that the ſame affection has very little influence upon mankind in the loweſt ranks of the moſt poliſhed ſocieties of modern Europe. That this is actually the caſe, that among the generality of uneducated men and women there is no other bond of attachment than the ſenſual appetite, every year furniſhes multiplied proofs. We daily ſee youths, rejected by their miſtreſſes, paying their addreſſes without delay to girls who, in looks, temper, and diſpoſition, are diametrically oppoſite to thoſe whom ſo lately they pretended to love: we daily ſee maidens, ſlighted by their lovers, receiving the addreſſes of men, who, in nothing but their ſex, reſemble thoſe to whom a week before they wiſhed to be married; and we know it is not very uncommon to find a girl entertaining ſeveral lovers together, that, if one or more of them ſhould prove falſe, ſhe may ſtill have a chance not to be totally deſerted. Did eſteem and benevolence, placed on manners and character, conſtitute any part of vulgar love, theſe people would act very differently; for they would find it impoſſible to change their lovers and their miſtreſſes with the ſame eaſe that they change their clothes.

To this account of love, as it appears in ſavage nations, ſome one may perhaps oppoſe the paintings of the ſofter paſſion in the poems of Oſſian. That bard deſcribes the female character as commanding reſpect and eſteem, and the Caledonian heroes as cheriſhing for their miſtreſſes a flame ſo pure and elevated as never was ſurpaſſed, and has ſeldom been equalled, in thoſe ages which we commonly call moſt enlightened. This is indeed true: and it is one of the many reaſons which have induced Johnſon and others to pronounce the whole a modern fiction. Into that debate we do not enter. We may admit the authenticity of the poems, without acknowledging that they furniſh any exception to our general theory. They furniſh, indeed, in the manners which they deſcribe, a wonderful anomaly in the general hiſtory of man. All other nations of which we read were, in the hunter-ſtate, ſavage and cruel. The Caledonians, as exhibited by Oſſian, are gentle and magnanimous. The heroes of Homer fought for plunder, and felt no clemency for a vanquiſhed foe. The heroes of Oſſian fought for fame; and, when their enemies were ſubdued, they took them to their boſoms. The firſt of Greeks committed a mean inſult on the dead body of the firſt of Trojans. Among the Caledonians, inſults offered to the dead, as well as cruelty to the living, were condemned as infamous. The heroes of Oſſian appear in no inſtance as ſavages. How they came to be poliſhed and refined before they were acquainted with agriculture and the moſt uſeful arts of life, it is not our buſineſs to enquire; but, ſince they unqueſtionably were ſo, their treatment of the female ſex, inſtead of oppoſing, confirms our theory; for we never conceived rich clothes, ſuperb houſes, highly-dreſſed food, or even the knowledge of foreign tongues, to be neceſſary to the acquiſition of a generous ſentiment. Luxury, indeed, appears to be as inimical to love as barbariſm: and, we believe, that in modern nations the tender and exalted affection which deſerves that name is as little known among the higheſt orders of life as among the loweſt. Perhaps the Caledonian ladies of Oſſian reſembled in their manners the German ladies of Tacitus, who accompanied their huſbands to the chace, fought by their ſides in battle, and partook with them of every danger. If ſo, they could not fail to be reſpected by a race of heroes among whom courage took place of all other virtues: and this ſingle circumſtance, from whatever cauſe it might proceed, will ſufficiently account for the eſtimation of the female character among the ancient Germans and Caledonians, ſo different from that in which it has been held in almoſt every other barbarous nation.

But, if among ſavages and the vulgar love be unknown, it cannot poſſibly be an inſtinctive affection: and therefore it may be aſked, How it gets poſſeſſion of the human heart; and by what means we can judge whether in any particular inſtance it be real or imaginary? Theſe queſtions are of im-

portance, and deſerve to be fully anſwered; though many circumſtances conſpire to render it no eaſy taſk to give to them ſuch anſwers as ſhall be perfectly ſatisfactory. Love can ſubſiſt only between individuals of the different ſexes. A man can hardly love two women at the ſame time; and, we believe that a woman is ſtill leſs capable of loving at once more than one man. Love, therefore, has a natural tendency to make men and women pair, or, in other words, it is the ſource of marriage: but in poliſhed ſociety, where alone this affection has any place, ſo many things beſides mutual attachment are neceſſary to make the married life comfortable, that we rarely ſee young perſons uniting from the impulſe of love, and have therefore but few opportunities of tracing the riſe, progreſs, and conſequences, of the affection. We ſhall, however, in our next numberthrow together ſuch reflections as have occurred to us on ſubject, not without indulging a hope that they may be uſeful to the younger part of our readers when forming the moſt important connection in life.

(To be continued.)

RISE AND FALL OF BEARDS.

VARIOUS have been the ceremonies and cuſtoms of moſt nations in regard of the beard. The Tartars, out of a religious principle, waged a long and bloody war with the Perſians, declaring them infidels, merely becauſe they would not cut their whiſkers after the rite of Tartary: and we find, that a conſiderable branch of the religion of the ancients conſiſted in the management of their beard. The Greeks wore their beards till the time of Alexander the Great; that prince having ordered the Macedonians to be ſhaved, for fear it ſhould give a handle to their enemies. According to Pliny, the Romans did not begin to ſhave till the year of Rome 454, when P. Ticinius brought over a ſtock of barbers from Sicily.—Perſons of quality had their children ſhaved the firſt time by others of the ſame of greater quality, who, by this means, became godfather or adoptive father of the children. Anciently, indeed, a perſon became godfather of the child by barely touching his beard: thus hiſtorians relate, that one of the articles of the treaty between Alaric and Clovis was, that Alaric ſhould touch the beard of Clovis to become his godfather.

As to eccleſiaſtics, the diſcipline has been very different on the article of beards: ſometimes they have been enjoined to wear them, from a notion of too much effeminacy in ſhaving, and that a long beard was more ſuitable to the eccleſiaſtical gravity; and ſometimes again they were forbid it, as imagining pride to lurk beneath a venerable beard. The Greek and Roman churches have been long together by the ears about their beards: ſince the time of their ſeparation, the Romaniſts ſeem to have given more into the practice of ſhaving, by way of oppoſition to the Greeks; and have even made ſome expreſs conſtitutions *de radendis barbis*. The Greeks, on the contrary, eſpouſe very zealouſly the cauſe of long beards, and are extremely ſcandalized at the beardleſs images of ſaints in the Roman churches. By the ſtatutes of ſome monaſteries it appears, that the lay-monks were to let their beards grow, and the prieſts among them to ſhave; and that the beards of all that were received into the monaſteries were bleſſed with a great deal of ceremony. There are ſtill extant the prayers uſed in the ſolemnity of conſecrating the beard to God, when an eccleſiaſtic was ſhaven.

Le Compte obſerves, that the Chineſe affect long beards extravagantly; but nature has baulked them, and only given them very little ones, which, however, they cultivate with infinite care: the Europeans are ſtrangely envied by them on this account, and eſteemed the greateſt men in the world. Chryſoſtom obſerves, that the kings of Perſia had their beards woven or matted together with gold thread; and ſome of the firſt kings of France had their beards knotted and buttoned up with gold.

Among the Turks, it is more infamous

famous for any one to have his beard cut off, than among us to be publicly whipped or branded with a hot iron. There are abundance in that country who would prefer death to this kind of punishment. The Arabs make the preservation of their beards a capital point of religion, because Mahomet never cut his. Hence the razor is never drawn over the Grand Signior's face. The Persians, who clip them, and shave above the jaw, are reputed heretics. It is likewise a mark of authority and liberty among them, as well as among the Turks. They who serve in the seraglio have their beards shaven, as a sign of their servitude. They do not suffer it to grow till the sultan has set them at liberty, which is bestowed as a reward upon them, and is always accompanied with some employment.

The most celebrated ancient writers, and several modern ones, have spoken honourably of the fine beards of antiquity. Homer speaks highly of the white beard of Nestor, and that of old king Priam. Virgil describes Mezentius's to us, which was so thick and long as to cover all his breast; Chrysippus praises the noble beard of Timothy, a famous player on the flute. Pliny the younger tells us of the white beard of Euphrates, a Syrian philosopher; and he takes pleasure in relating the respect, mixed with fear, with which it inspired the people. Plutarch speaks of the long white beard of an old Laconian, who, being asked why he let it grow so, replied, "'Tis that, seeing continually my white beard, I may do nothing unworthy of its whiteness." Strabo relates, that the Indian philosophers, the Gymnosophists, were particularly attentive to make the length of their beards contribute to captivate the veneration of the people. Diodorus, after him, gives a very particular and circumstantial history of the beards of the Indians. Juvenal does not forget that of Antilochus the son of Nestor. Fenelon, in describing a priest of Apollo in all his magnificence, tells us, that he had a white beard down to his girdle. But Persius seems to outdo all these authors: this poet was so convinced that a beard was the symbol of wisdom, that he thought he could not bestow a greater encomium on the divine Socrates, than by calling him the bearded master, *magistrum barbatum*.

While the Gauls were under their sovereignty, none but the nobles and Christian priests were permitted to wear long beards. The Franks, having made themselves masters of Gaul, assumed the same authority as the Romans; the bondsmen were expresly ordered to shave their chins; and this law continued in force until the entire abolishment of servitude in France. So likewise, in the time of the first race of kings, a long beard was a sign of nobility and freedom. The kings, as being the highest nobles in their kingdom, were emulous likewise to have the largest beards: Eginard, secretary to Charlemagne, speaking of the last kings of the first race, says, they came to the assemblies in the Field of Mars in a carriage drawn by oxen, and sat on the throne with their hair dishevelled, and a very long beard: *crine profuso, barba submissa, solio residerunt, et speciem dominantis effingerent*.

To touch any one's beard, or cut off a bit of it, was, among the first French, the most sacred pledge of protection and confidence. For a long time all letters that came from the sovereign had, for greater sanction, three hairs of his beard in the seal. There is still in being a charter of 1121, which concludes with the following words: *Quod ut ratum et stabile perseveret in posterum, præsentis scripto sigilli mei robur opposui cum tribus pilis barbæ meæ*.

Several great men have honoured themselves with the surname of Bearded. The emperor Constantine is distinguished by the epithet of Pogonate, which signifies the Bearded. In the time of the Crusades, we find there was a Geffery the Bearded: Baldwin IV. earl of Flanders, was surnamed Handsome-beard; and, in the illustrious house of Montmorenci, there was a famous Bouchard, who took a pride in the surname of Bearded; he was always the declared enemy of the monks, without doubt because of their being shaved.

In the tenth century, we find, that King Robert (of France), the rival of Charles the Simple, was not more famous

mous for his exploits than for his long white beard. In order that it might be more conſpicuous to the ſoldiers when he was in the field, he uſed to let it hang down outſide his cuiraſs: this venerable ſight encouraged the troops in battle, and ſerved to rally them when they were defeated.

A celebrated painter in Germany, called John Mayo, had ſuch a large beard that he was nicknamed John the Bearded; it was ſo long that he wore it faſtened to his girdle; and, though he was a very tall man, it would hang upon the ground when he ſtood upright. He took the greateſt care of this extraordinary beard; ſometimes he would untie it before the emperor Charles V. who took great pleaſure to ſee the wind make it fly againſt the faces of the lords of his court.

In England, the famous chancellor Thomas More, one of the greateſt men of his time, being on the point of falling a victim to court intrigues, was able, when on the fatal ſcaffold, to procure reſpect to his beard in preſence of all the people, and ſaved it, as one may ſay, from the fatal ſtroke which he could not eſcape himſelf. When he had laid his head on the block, he perceived that his beard was likely to be hurt by the axe of the executioner; on which he took it away, ſaying, "My beard has not been guilty of treaſon; it would be an injuſtice to puniſh it."

But let us turn our eyes to a more flattering object, and admire the ever-precious beard of the great Henry IV. of France, which diffuſed over the countenance of that prince a majeſtic ſweetneſs and amiable openneſs, a beard ever dear to poſterity, and which ſhould ſerve as a model for that of every great king; as the beard of his illuſtrious miniſter ſhould for that of every miniſter. But what dependence is there to be put on the ſtability of the things of this world? By an event, as fatal as unforeſeen, the beard, which was arrived at its higheſt degree of glory, all of a ſudden loſt its favour, and was at length entirely proſcribed. The unexpected death of Henry the Great, and the youth of his ſucceſſor, were the ſole cauſe of it.

Louis XIII. mounted the throne of his glorious anceſtors without a beard. Every one concluded immediately, that the courtiers, ſeeing their young king with a ſmooth chin, would look upon their own as too rough. The conjecture proved right; for they preſently reduced their beards to whiſkers, and a ſmall tuft of hair under the nether lip.

The people at firſt would not follow this dangerous example. The Duke of Sully never would adopt this effeminate cuſtom. This man, great both as a general and a miniſter, was likewiſe ſo in his retirement: he had the courage to keep his long beard, and to appear with it at the court of Louis XIII. where he was called to give his advice in an affair of importance. The young crop-bearded courtiers laughed at the ſight of his grave look and old-faſhioned phiz. The duke, nettled at the affront put on his fine beard, ſaid to the king, "Sir, when your father, of glorious memory, did me the honour to conſult me on his great and important affairs, the firſt thing he did was to ſend away all the buffoons and ſtage-dancers of his court."

The Czar Peter, who had ſo many claims to the ſurname of Great, ſeems to have been but little worthy of it on this occaſion. He had the boldneſs to lay a tax on the beards of his ſubjects. He ordered that the noblemen and gentlemen, tradeſmen and artiſans (the prieſts and peaſants excepted), ſhould pay 100 rubles to be able to retain their beards; that the lower claſs of people ſhould pay a copeck for the ſame liberty; and he eſtabliſhed clerks at the gates of the different towns to collect theſe duties. Such a new and ſingular impoſt troubled the vaſt empire of Ruſſia. Both religion and manners were thought in danger. Complaints were heard from all parts; they even went ſo far as to write libels againſt the ſovereign; but he was inflexible, and at that time powerful. Even the fatal ſcenes of St. Bartholomew were renewed againſt theſe unfortunate beards, and the moſt unlawful violences were publicly exerciſed. The razor and ſciſſars were every where made uſe of. A great number, to avoid theſe cruel extremities, obeyed with reluctant ſighs. Some of them carefully preſerved the

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ſad trimmings of their chins; and, in order to be never ſeparated from theſe dear locks, gave orders that they ſhould be placed with them in their coffins.

Example, more powerful than authority, produced in Spain what it had not been able to bring about in Ruſſia without great difficulty. Philip V. aſcended the throne with a ſhaved chin. The courtiers imitated the prince, and the people, in turn, the courtiers. However, though this revolution was brought about without violence, and by degrees, it cauſed much lamentation and murmuring; the gravity of the Spaniards loſt much by the change. The favourite cuſtom of a nation can never be altered without incurring diſpleaſure. They have this old ſaying in Spain: *Deſde que no hay barba, no hay mas alma.* "Since we have loſt our beards, we have loſt our ſouls."

Among the European nations that have been moſt curious in beards and whiſkers, we muſt diſtinguiſh Spain. This grave romantic nation has always regarded the beard as the ornament moſt to be prized; and the Spaniards have often made the loſs of honor conſiſt in that of their whiſkers. The Portugueſe, whoſe national character is much the ſame, are not the leaſt behind them in that reſpect. In the reign of Catherine queen of Portugal, the brave John de Cuſtro had juſt taken in India the caſtle of Diu: victorious, but in want of every thing, he found himſelf obliged to aſk the inhabitants of Goa to lend him a thouſand piſtoles for the maintenance of his fleet; and, as a ſecurity for that ſum, he ſent them one of his whiſkers, telling them, 'All the gold in the world cannot equal the value of this natural ornament of my valour; and I depoſit it in your hands as a ſecurity for the money.' The whole town was penetrated with this heroiſm, and every one intereſted himſelf about this invaluable whiſker: even the women were deſirous to give marks of their zeal for ſo brave a man: ſeveral ſold their bracelets to increaſe the ſum aſked for; and the inhabitants of Goa ſent him immediately both the money and his whiſker. A number of other examples of this kind might be produced, which do as much honour to whiſkers as to the good faith of thoſe days.

In Louis XIIIth's reign, whiſkers attained the higheſt degree of favour, at the expence of the expiring beards. In thoſe days of gallantry, not yet empoiſoned by wit, they became the favourite occupation of lovers. A fine black whiſker, elegantly turned up, was a very powerful mark of dignity with the fair ſex. Whiſkers were ſtill in faſhion in the beginning of Louis the XIVth's reign. This king, and all the great men of his reign, took a pride in wearing them. They were the ornament of Turenne, Condé, Colbert, Corneille, Moliere, &c. It was then no uncommon thing for a favourite lover to have his whiſkers turned up, combed, and pomatumed, by his miſtreſs; and, for this purpoſe, a man of faſhion took care to be always provided with every little neceſſary article, eſpecially whiſker-wax. It was highly flattering to a lady to have it in her power to praiſe the beauty of her lover's whiſkers; which, far from being diſguſting, gave his perſon an air of vivacity; ſeveral even thought them an incitement to love. It ſeems the levity of the French made them undergo ſeveral changes both in form and name: there were Spaniſh, Turkiſh, guard-dagger, &c. whiſkers; in ſhort, royal ones, which were the laſt worn: their ſmallneſs proclaimed their approaching fall.

The Turkiſh wives kiſs their huſbands' beards, and children their fathers', as often as they come to ſalute them. The men kiſs one another's beards reciprocally on both ſides, when they ſalute in the ſtreets, or come off from any journey.

The faſhion of the beard has varied in different ages and countries; ſome cultivating and cheriſhing one part of it, ſome another. Thus the Hebrews wear a beard on their chin; but not on the upper lip or cheeks. Moſes forbids them to cut off entirely the angle or extremity of their beard; that is, to manage it after the Egyptian faſhion, who left only a little tuft of beard at the extremity of their chin; whereas the Jews to this day ſuffer a little fillet of hair to grow from the lower end of their ears to their chins, where,

where, as well as on their lower lips, their beards are in a pretty long bunch. The Jews, in time of mourning, neglected to turn their beards, that is, to cut off what grew ſuperfluous on the upper lips and cheeks. In time of grief and great affliction they alſo plucked off the hair of their beards.

Anointing the beard with unguents is an ancient practice both among the Jews and Romans, and ſtill continues in uſe among the Turks, where one of the principal ceremonies obſerved in ſerious viſits is to throw ſweet-ſcented water on the beard of the viſitant, and to perfume it afterwards with aloes-wood, which ſticks to this moiſture, and gives it an agreeable ſmell. In middle-age writers we meet with *adlentare barbam*, uſed for ſtroking and combing it, to render it ſoft and flexible. The Turks, when they comb their beards, hold a handkerchief on their knees, and gather very carefully the hairs that fall; and, when they have got together a certain quantity, they fold them up in paper, and carry them to the place where they inter the dead, and bury them.

There are ſeveral inſtances given by Hippocrates, and other phyſicians, of grown women, who have been obſerved to want the cuſtomary diſcharge, having long beards. Euſebius Nierembergius mention a woman who had a beard reaching to her navel; and in the cabinet of curioſities of Stutgard, in Germany, there is the portrait of a woman called Bartel Graetje, whoſe chin is covered with a very large beard. She was drawn in 1587, at which time ſhe was but twenty-five years of age. There is likewiſe in the ſame cabinet another portrait of her when ſhe was more advanced in life, but likewiſe with a beard.—It is ſaid, that the Duke of Saxony had the portrait of a poor Swiſs woman taken, remarkable for her long buſhy beard; and thoſe who were at the carnival at Venice in 1726, ſaw a female dancer aſtoniſh the ſpectators not more by her talents than by her chin covered with a black buſhy beard.—Charles XII. had in his army a female grenadier: it was neither courage nor a beard that ſhe wanted to be a man. She was taken at the battle of Pultowa, and carried to Peterſburgh, where ſhe was preſented to the czar in 1724: her beard meaſured a yard and a half.---We read in the Trévoux Dictionary, that there was a woman ſeen at Paris, who had not only a buſhy beard on her face, but her body likewiſe covered all over with hair. Among a number of other examples of this nature, that of Margaret, the governeſs of the Netherlands, is very remarkable. She had a very long ſtiff beard, which ſhe prided herſelf on; and, being perſuaded that it contributed to give her an air of majeſty, ſhe took care not to loſe a hair of it. This Margaret was a very great woman.---It is ſaid, that the Lombard women, when they were at war, made themſelves beards with the hair of their heads, which they ingeniouſly arranged on their cheeks, in order that the enemy, deceived by the likeneſs, might take them for men. It is aſſerted, after Suidas, that in a ſimilar caſe the Athenian women did as much. Theſe women were much more men than many of our Jemmy-Jeſſamy countrymen. ---About a century ago, the French ladies adopted the mode of dreſſing their hair in ſuch a manner that curls hung down their cheeks as far as their boſoms. Theſe curls went by the name of whiſkers. This cuſtom undoubtedly was not invented, after the example of the Lombard women, to fright the men. Neither is it with intention to carry on a very bloody war, that in our time they have affected to bring forward the hair of the temples on the cheeks. The diſcovery ſeems to have been a fortunate one, ſince it gives them a tempting look.

COMBATS OF THE GLADIATORS.

THE gladiators were perſons who generally fought in the arena at Rome, for the entertainment of the people. They were uſually ſlaves, and fought out of neceſſity; though ſometimes freedmen made profeſſion thereof, like our prize-fighters, for a livelihood. The Romans borrowed this

this cruel diverſion from the Aſiatics: ſome ſuppoſe that there was policy in the practice, the frequent combats of gladiators tending to accuſtom the people to deſpiſe dangers and death.

The origin of ſuch combats ſeems to be as follows: From the earlieſt times with which we have any acquaintance in profane hiſtory, it had been the cuſtom to ſacrifice captives, or priſoners of war, to the manes of the great men who had died in the engagement: thus Achilles, in the Iliad, lib. xxiii. ſacrifices twelve young Trojans to the manes of Patroclus; and in Virgil, lib. xi. ver. 81. Æneas ſends captives to Evander, to be ſacrificed at the funeral of his ſon Pallas. In courſe of time they came alſo to ſacrifice ſlaves at the funerals of all perſons of condition; this was even eſteemed a neceſſary part of the ceremony; but, as it would have appeared barbarous to have maſſacred them like beaſts, they were appointed to fight with each other, that the life of one might be ſaved by killing his adverſary. This ſeemed ſomewhat leſs inhuman, becauſe there was a poſſibility of avoiding death, by an exertion of ſkill and courage. This occaſioned the profeſſion of gladiator to become an art: hence aroſe maſters of the art, and men learned to fight and exerciſe it. Theſe maſters, whom the Latins called *laniſtæ*, bought them ſlaves to be trained up to this cruel trade, whom they afterwards ſold to ſuch as had occaſion to preſent the people with ſo horrible a ſhow. Theſe exhibitions were at firſt performed near the ſepulchre of the deceaſed, or about the funeral pile; but were afterwards removed to the circus and amphitheatres, and became ordinary amuſements.

The firſt ſhow of gladiators, called *munus gladiatorum*, was exhibited at Rome, according to Valerius Maximus, by M. and D. Brutus, upon the death of their father, in the year of the city 490. On this occaſion there were probably only three pair of gladiators. In 537, the three ſons of M. Æmilius Lepidus, the augur, who had been three times conſul, entertained the people with the cruel pleaſure of ſeeing twenty-two gladiators fight in the forum. In 547, the firſt Africanus diverted his army at New Carthage with a ſhow of gladiators, which he exhibited in honour of his father and uncle, who had begun the reduction of Spain. In proceſs of time, the Romans became ſo fond of theſe bloody entertainments, that not only the heir of any great and rich citizen lately deceaſed, but all the principal magiſtrates, preſented the people with ſhows of this nature, to procure their affection. The ædiles, pretors, conſuls, and, above all, the candidates for offices, made their court to the people, by entertaining them frequently with theſe fights: and the prieſts were ſometimes the exhibitors of theſe barbarous ſhows; for we meet with the *ludi pontificales* in Suetonius, Auguſt. cap. 44. and with the *ludi ſacerdotales* in Pliny, Epiſt. lib. vii. As for the emperors, it was ſo much their intereſt to ingratiate themſelves with the populace, that they obliged them with combats of the gladiators almoſt upon all occaſions; and, as theſe increaſed, the number of combatants increaſed likewiſe. Accordingly Julius Cæſar, in his ædileſhip, diverted the people with 320 couple. Titus exhibited a ſhow of gladiators, wild beaſts, and repreſentations of ſea-fights, which laſted 100 days; and Trajan continued a ſolemnity of this nature for 123 days; during which time he brought out 1000 pair of gladiators. Before this time, under the republic, the number of gladiators was ſo great, that, when the conſpiracy of Catiline broke out, the ſenate ordered them to be diſperſed into the garriſons and ſecured, leſt they ſhould have joined the diſaffected party.

Theſe ſports were become ſo common, and their conſequences in a variety of reſpects ſo dangerous, that Cicero preferred a law that no perſon ſhould exhibit a ſhow of gladiators within two years before he appeared candidate for any office. Julius Cæſar ordered, that only a certain number of men of this profeſſion ſhould be in Rome at a time; Auguſtus decreed, that only two ſhows of gladiators ſhould be preſented in a year, and never above ſixty couple of combatants in a ſhow; and Tiberius provided, by an order of ſenate, that no perſon ſhould have the privilege of gratifying the people with ſuch a ſolemnity unleſs he was worth

400,000

400,000 ſeſterces. They were alſo conſiderably regulated by Nerva.

The emperor Claudius reſtrained them to certain occaſions: but he ſoon afterwards annulled what he decreed, and private perſons began to exhibit them at pleaſure as uſual; and ſome carried the brutal ſatisfaction ſo far as to have them at their ordinary feaſts. And not ſlaves only, but other perſons, would hire themſelves to this infamous office. The maſter of the gladiators made them all firſt ſwear that they would fight to death; and, if they failed, they were put to death either by fire, or ſwords, clubs, whips, or the like. It was a crime for the wretches to complain when they were wounded, or to aſk for death or to ſeek to avoid it when overcome; but it was uſual for the emperor or the people to grant them life when they gave no ſigns of fear, but waited the fatal ſtroke with courage and intrepidity: Auguſtus even decreed that it ſhould always be granted them.

From ſlaves and freedmen the inhuman ſport at length ſpread to people of rank and condition; ſo that Auguſtus was obliged to iſſue a public edict that none of the ſenatorian order ſhould become gladiators; and ſoon after he laid the ſame reſtraint on the knights: nevertheleſs Nero is related to have brought upwards of 400 ſenators and 600 Roman knights upon the arena; though Lipſius takes both theſe numbers to be falſified, and, not without reaſon, reduces them to 40 ſenators and 60 knights: yet Domitian, that other monſter of cruelty, refined upon Nero, exhibiting combats of women in the night-time.

Conſtantine the Great is ſaid to have firſt prohibited the combats of the gladiators in the eaſt. At leaſt he forbade thoſe who were condemned to death for their crimes to be employed; there being an order ſtill extant to the *præfectus prætorii* rather to ſend them to work in the mines in lieu thereof: it is dated at Berytus, in Phœnicia, the 1ſt of October, 325.

The emperor Honorius forbad them at Rome, on occaſion of the death of Telemachus, who, coming out of the eaſt into Rome at the time of one of theſe ſpectacles, went down into the arena, and uſed all his endeavours to prevent the gladiators from continuing the ſport; upon which the ſpectators of that carnage, fired with anger, ſtoned him to death. It muſt be obſerved, however, that the practice was not entirely aboliſhed in the weſt before Theodric king of the Oſtrogoths. Honorius, on the occaſion firſt mentioned, had prohibited them; but the prohibition does not ſeem to have been executed. Theodric, in the year 500, aboliſhed them finally.

Some time before the day of combat, the perſon who preſented the people with the ſhows gave notice thereof by programmas, or bills, containing the names of the gladiators, and the marks whereby they were to be diſtinguiſhed: for each had his ſeveral badge; which was moſt commonly a peacock's feather, as appears from the ſcholiaſt of Juvenal on the 158th verſe of the third ſatire, and Turnebus Adverſ. lib. ii. cap. 8. They alſo gave notice how long the ſhows would laſt, and how many couples of gladiators there were; and it even appears, that they made repreſentations of theſe things in painting, as is practiſed among us by thoſe who ſhew wild beaſts at fairs.

The day being come, they began the entertainment by bringing two kinds of weapons; the firſt were ſtaves or wooden files, called *rudes*; and the ſecond were effective weapons, as ſwords, poignards, &c. The firſt were called *arma luſoria*, or *exercitoria*; the ſecond *decretoria*, as being given by decree or ſentence of the prætor, or of him at whoſe expence the ſpectacle was exhibited. The combatants began to fence or ſkirmiſh with the firſt, which was to be the prelude to the battle; and from theſe, when well warmed, they advanced to the ſecond at the ſound of the trumpets, when they inſtantly ſtripped and fought quite naked, and, if the vanquiſhed ſurrendered up his arms it was not in the victor's power to grant him life: it was the people during the time of the republic, and the prince or people during the time of the empire, that were alone empowered to grant the boon. The reward of the conqueror was a branch of palm-tree, and a ſum of money, probably collected

lected from among the ſpectators: ſometimes they gave him his congé, or diſmiſſed him by putting one of the wooden files or *rudis* in his hand; and ſometimes they even gave him his freedom, putting the pileus on his head. The ſign or indication, whereby the ſpectators ſhewed that they granted the favour, was *premere pollicem*, which M. Dacier takes to be a clenching of the fingers of both hands between one another, and ſo holding the two thumbs upright cloſe together; and, when they would have the combat finiſhed and the vanquiſhed ſlain, *verterunt pollicem*, they bent back the thumb; which we learn from Juvenal, Sat. iii. v. 36. It was the pride of the vanquiſhed gladiator, when he was doomed to die, and had received the mortal ſtroke, to fall honourably. Even when beaten to the ground, and with juſt ſtrength ſufficient to ſupport himſelf on his arm, he does not abandon himſelf to grief and dejection; but is ſolicitous to maintain that firmneſs of aſpect which the gladiators valued themſelves on preſerving in this ſeaſon of diſtreſs, and that attitude which they had learnt of the maſters of defence. He muſt neither fear death, nor betray any token of ſorrow by his countenance, nor ſhed one tear: *quis mediocris gladiator ingemuit, quis vultum mutavit unquam, quis non modo ſtetit, verum etiam decubuit turpiter*, ſays Cicero, in that part of his Tuſculan where he is deſcribing the aſtoniſhing firmneſs of thoſe perſons. And at this inſtant, notwithſtanding his exhauſted ſtrength, and that he has but a moment to live, he is viewed with attentive admiration, and the glory of the ſcene is to ſee him expire and fall without a groan, or without a ſymptom or expreſſion that could betray the ſmalleſt deſire of life!

FROLIC OF SOME BRITISH NAVAL OFFICERS AT ALEXANDRIA.

THAT which moſtly engages the attention of travellers who paſs through Alexandria, is the PILLAR of POMPEY, as it is commonly called, ſituated at a quarter of a league from the ſouthern gate of the city. It is compoſed of red granite. The capital is Corinthian, with palm-leaves, and not indented. It is nine feet high. The ſhaft and the upper member of the baſe are of one piece of 90 feet long, and nine in diameter. The baſe is a ſquare of about 15 feet on each ſide. This block of marble, 60 feet in circumference, reſts on two layers of ſtone bound together with lead; which, however, has not prevented the Arabs from forcing out ſeveral of them, to ſearch for an imaginary treaſure. The whole column is 114 feet high. It is perfectly well poliſhed, and only a little ſhivered on the eaſtern ſide. Nothing can equal the majeſty of this monument; ſeen from a diſtance, it overtops the town, and ſerves as a ſignal for veſſels at ſea. Approaching it nearer, it produces an aſtoniſhment mixed with awe. One can never be tired with admiring the beauty of the capital, the length of the ſhaft, nor the extraordinary ſimplicity of the pedeſtal. This laſt has been ſomewhat damaged by the inſtruments of travellers, who are curious to poſſeſs a relic of this antiquity; and one of the volutes of the column was immaturely brought down about twelve years ago, by a prank of ſome Engliſh captains, which is thus related by Mr. Irwin.

Theſe jolly ſons of Neptune had been puſhing about the can on-board one of the ſhips in the harbour, until a ſtrange freak entered into one of their brains. The eccentricity of the thought occaſioned it immediately to be adopted; and its apparent impoſſibility was but a ſpur for their putting it into execution. The boat was ordered; and with proper implements for the attempt, theſe enterpriſing heroes puſhed aſhore, to drink a bowl of punch on the top of Pompey's pillar! At the ſpot they arrived; and many contrivances were propoſed to accompliſh the deſired point. But their labour was vain; and they began to deſpair of ſucceſs, when the genius who ſtruck out the frolic happily ſuggeſted the means of performing it. A man was diſpatched to the city for a paper kite. The inhabitants were by this time apprized of what was going forward, and flocked in crowds to be witneſſes of the addreſs and boldneſs of the Engliſh. The governor of Alexandria was told that theſe ſeamen were about to

to pull down Pompey's pillar. But, whether he gave them credit for their reſpect to the Roman warrior or to the Turkiſh government, he left them to themſelves; and politely anſwered, that the Engliſh were too great patriots to injure the remains of Pompey. He knew little, however, of the diſpoſition of the people who were engaged in this undertaking. Had the Turkiſh empire riſen in oppoſition, it would not perhaps at that moment have deterred them. The kite was brought, and flown ſo directly over the pillar, that when it fell on the other ſide the ſtring lodged upon the capital. The chief obſtacle was now overcome. A two-inch rope was tied to one end of the ſtring, and drawn over the pillar by the end to which the kite was affixed. By this rope one of the ſeamen aſcended to the top; and in leſs than an hour a kind of ſhroud was conſtructed, by which the whole company went up, and drank their punch amid the ſhouts of the aſtoniſhed multitude. To the eye below, the capital of the pillar does not appear capable of holding more than one man upon it; but our ſeamen found it could contain no leſs than eight perſons very conveniently. It is aſtoniſhing that no accident befel theſe madcaps, in a ſituation ſo elevated, that would have turned a landman giddy in his ſober ſenſes. The only detriment which the pillar received was the loſs of the volute before-mentioned; which came down with a thundering ſound, and was carried to England by one of the captains, as a preſent to a lady who commiſſioned him for a piece of the pillar. The diſcovery which they made amply compenſated for this miſchief; as, without their evidence, the world would not have known, at this hour, that there was originally a ſtatue on this pillar, one foot and ancle of which are ſtill remaining. The ſtatue muſt have been of a gigantic ſize, to have appeared of a man's proportion at ſo great an height.

There are circumſtances in this ſtory which might give it an air of fiction, were it not demonſtrated beyond all doubt. Beſides the teſtimonies of many eye-witneſſes, the adventurers themſelves have left us a token of the fact by the initials of their names, which are very legible, in black paint, juſt beneath the capital.

REMARKABLE ACCOUNT OF THE LAND-CRAB.

[*Extracted from Dr. Sibly's* Wonders of Nature.]

THE land-crab inhabits the Bahama Iſlands, as well as moſt parts between the tropics, and feeds upon vegetables. Theſe creatures live not only in a kind of orderly ſociety in their retreats in the mountains, but regularly once a year march down to the ſea-ſide in a body of ſome millions at a time. As they multiply in great numbers, they chooſe the month of April or May to begin their expedition; and then ſally out by thouſands from the ſtumps of hollow trees, from the clefts of rocks, and from the holes which they dig for themſelves under the ſurface of the earth. At that time the whole ground is covered with this band of adventurers; there is no ſetting down one's foot without treading upon them. The ſea is their place of deſtination, and to that they direct their march with right-lined preciſion. No geometrician could ſend them to their deſtined ſtation by a ſhorter courſe; they neither turn to the right nor to the left, whatever obſtacles intervene; and even if they meet with a houſe, they will attempt to ſcale the walls to keep the unbroken tenor of their way. But, tho' this be the general order of their route, they, upon other occaſions, are obliged to conform to the face of the country; and, if it is interſected with rivers, they are then ſeen to wind along the courſe of the ſtream. The proceſſion ſets forward from the mountains with the regularity of an army under the guidance of an experience commander. They are commonly divided into three battalions; of which the firſt conſiſts of the ſtrongeſt and boldeſt males, that, like pioneers, march forward to clear the route and face the greateſt dangers. Theſe are often obliged to halt for want of rain, and to go into the moſt convenient encampment till the weather changes. The main body of the army is compoſed of females, which never leave the mountains till the rain is ſet in for ſome time, and then deſcend in regular

regular battalia, being formed into columns of fifty paces broad, and three miles deep, and ſo cloſe that they almoſt cover the ground. Three or four days after this, the rear-guard follows, a ſtraggling undiſciplined tribe, conſiſting of males and females, but neither ſo robuſt nor ſo vigorous as the former. The night is their chief time of proceeding; but, if it rains by day, they do not fail to profit by the occaſion; and they continue to move forward in their ſlow uniform manner. When the ſun ſhines and is hot upon the ſurface of the ground, they then make an univerſal halt, and wait till the cool of the evening.

When they are terrified, they march back in a confuſed diſorderly manner, holding up their nippers, with which they ſometimes tear off a piece of the ſkin, and then leave the weapon where they inflicted the wound. They even try to intimidate their enemies; for they often clatter their nippers together, as if it were to threaten thoſe that come to diſturb them. But, tho' they thus ſtrive to be formidable to man, they are much more ſo to each other; for they are poſſeſſed of one moſt unſocial property, which is, that, if any of them by accident is maimed in ſuch a manner as to be incapable of proceeding, the reſt fall upon and devour it on the ſpot, and then purſue their journey.

When, after a fatiguing march, and eſcaping a thouſand dangers, (for they are ſometimes three months in getting to the ſhore,) they have arrived at their deſtined port, they prepare to caſt their ſpawn. The peas are as yet within their bodies, and not excluded, as is uſual in animals of this kind, under the tail; for the creature waits for the benefit of ſea-water to help the delivery. For this purpoſe the crab has no ſooner reached the ſhore, than it eagerly goes to the edge of the water, and lets the waves waſh over its body two or three times. This ſeems only a preparation for bringing their ſpawn to maturity; for, without farther delay, they withdraw to ſeek a lodging upon land; in the mean time the ſpawn grows larger, is excluded out of the body, and ſticks to the barbs under the flap, or more properly the tail. This bunch is ſeen as big as a hen's egg, and exactly reſembling the roes of herrings. In this ſtage of pregnancy they once more ſeek the ſhore for the laſt time; and, ſhaking off their ſpawn into the water, leave accident to bring it to maturity. At this time whole ſhoals of hungry fiſh are at the ſhore in expectation of this annual ſupply; the ſea to a great diſtance ſeems black with them; and about two thirds of the crabs eggs are immediately devoured by theſe rapacious invaders. The eggs that eſcape are hatched under the ſand; and, ſoon after, millions at a time of the little crabs are ſeen quitting the ſhore, and ſlowly travelling up to the mountains. The old ones however are not ſo active to return; they have become ſo feeble and lean, that they can hardly creep along, and the fleſh at that time changes its colour. The moſt of them, therefore, are obliged to continue in the flat parts of the country till they recover, making holes in the earth, which they cover at the mouth with leaves and dirt, ſo that no air may enter. There they throw off their old ſhells, which they leave, as it were, quite whole; the place where they opened on the belly being unſeen. At that time they are quite naked, and almoſt without motion for ſix days together, when they become ſo fat as to be delicious food. They have then under their ſtomachs four large white ſtones, which gradually decreaſe in proportion as the ſhell hardens, and, when they come to perfection, are not to be found. It is at that time that the animal is ſeen ſlowly making its way back; and all this is moſt commonly performed in the ſpace of ſix weeks. This animal, when poſſeſſed of its retreats in the mountains, is impregnable; for, only ſubſiſting on vegetables, it ſeldom ventures out; and, its habitation being in the moſt inacceſſible places it remains for a great part of the ſeaſon in perfect ſecurity. It is only when impelled by the deſire of bringing forth its young, and when compelled to deſcend into the flat country, that it is taken. At that time the natives wait for its deſcent in eager expectation, and deſtroy thouſands; but, diſregarding their bodies, they only ſeek for that ſmall ſpawn which lies on each ſide of the ſtomach within the ſhell, of about

the thickneſs of a man's thumb. They are much more valuable upon their return after they have caſt their ſhell; for, being covered with a ſkin reſembling ſoft parchment, almoſt every part except the ſtomach may be eaten. They are taken in the holes by feeling for them with an inſtrument; they are ſought after by night, when on their journey, with flambeaux. The inſtant the animal perceives itſelf attacked, it throws itſelf on its back, and with its claws pinches moſt terribly whatever it happens to faſten on. But the dexterous crab-catcher takes them by the hinder legs in ſuch a manner that the nippers cannot touch him, and thus he throws them into his bag. Sometimes alſo they are caught when they take refuge in the bottom of holes in rocks by the ſea-ſide, by clapping a ſtick to the mouth of the hole, which prevents their getting out; and then ſoon after, the tide coming enters the hole, and the animal is found, upon its retiring, drowned in its retreat.—Theſe crabs are of various ſizes, the largeſt about ſix inches wide; they walk ſide-ways like the ſea-crab, and are ſhaped like them: ſame are black, ſome yellow, ſome red, and others variegated with red, white, and yellow, mixed. Some of theſe are poiſonous; and ſeveral people have died of eating of the crabs, particularly of the black kind. The light-coloured are reckoned beſt; and, when in full fleſh, are very well taſted. In ſome of the ſugar-iſlands they are eaten without danger; and are no ſmall help to the negro ſlaves, who, on many of theſe iſlands, would fare very hard without them.

RYNSAULT AND SAPPHIRA; OR, PERFIDY PUNISHED.

WHEN Charles duke of Burgundy, ſurnamed the Bold, reigned over ſpacious dominions now ſwallowed up in the realms of France, he heaped many favours and honours upon Claudius Rynſault, a German, who had ſerved him in his wars againſt the inſults of his neighbours. The prince himſelf was a perſon of ſingular humanity and juſtice; and, being prepoſſeſſed in favour of Rynſault, upon the deceaſe of the governor of the chief town of Zealand gave him that command. He was not long ſeated on that government before he caſt his eyes upon Sapphira, a woman of exquiſite beauty, the wife of Paul Danvelt, a wealthy merchant of the city under his protection and government. Rynſault was a man of warm conſtitution, and violent inclination to women. He knew what it was to enjoy the ſatisfactions which are reaped from the poſſeſſion of beauty; but was an utter ſtranger to the decencies, honours, and delicacies, that attend the paſſion towards them in elegant minds. He could with his tongue utter a paſſion with which his heart was wholly untouched. In ſhort, he was one of thoſe brutal minds which can be gratified with the violation of innocence and beauty, without the leaſt pity, paſſion, or love, for that with which they are ſo much delighted.

Rynſault, being reſolved to accompliſh his will on the wife of Danvelt, left no arts untried to get into a familiarity at her houſe; but ſhe knew his character and diſpoſition too well not to ſhun all occaſions that might enſnare her into his converſation. The governor, deſpairing of ſucceſs by ordinary means, apprehended and impriſoned her huſband, under pretence of an information that he was guilty of a correſpondence with the enemies of the duke to betray the town into their poſſeſſion. This deſign had its deſired effect; and the wife of the unfortunate Danvelt, the day before that which was appointed for his execution, preſented herſelf in the hall of the governor's houſe, and, as he paſſed through the apartment, threw herſelf at his feet, and, holding his knees, beſought his mercy. Rynſault beheld her with a diſſembled ſatisfaction; and, aſſuming an air of thought and authority he bade her riſe, and told her ſhe muſt follow him to his cloſet; and, aſking her whether ſhe knew the hand of the letter he pulled out of his pocket, went from her, leaving this admonition aloud: "If you would ſave your huſband, you muſt give me an account of all you know, without prevarication; for every body is ſatisfied that he is too fond of you to be able to hide from you the names of the reſt of the conſpirators, or any other particulars whatſoever." He went to his cloſet, and ſoon after the lady was ſent for to

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an audience. The ſervant knew his diſtance when matters of ſtate were to be debated; and the governor, laying aſide the air with which he had appeared in public, began to be the ſuppliant, and to rally an affliction which it was in her power eaſily to remove. She ſoon perceived his intention; and, bathed in tears, began to deprecate ſo wicked a deſign. Luſt, like ambition, takes all the faculties of the mind and body into its ſervice and ſubjection. Her becoming tears, her honeſt anguiſh, the wringing of her hands, and the many changes of her poſture and figure in the vehemence of ſpeaking, were but ſo many attitudes in which he beheld her beauty, and farther incentives of his deſire. All humanity was loſt in that one appetite; and he ſignified to her in ſo many plain terms, that he was unhappy till he poſſeſſed her, and nothing elſe ſhould be the price of her huſband's life; and ſhe muſt, before the following noon, pronounce the death or enlargement of Danvelt. After this notification, when he ſaw Sapphira enough diſtracted to make the ſubject of their diſcourſe to common eyes appear different from what it was, he called his ſervants to conduct her to the gate. Loaded with inſupportable affliction, ſhe immediately repairs to her huſband, and, having ſignified to the gaolers that ſhe had a propoſal to make to her huſband from the governor, ſhe was left alone with him, revealed to him all that had paſſed, and repreſented the endleſs conflict ſhe was in between love to his perſon and fidelity to his bed. It is eaſy to imagine the ſharp affliction this honeſt pair was in upon ſuch an incident, in lives not uſed to any but common occurrences. The man was bridled by ſhame from ſpeaking what his fear prompted upon ſo near an approach of death; but let fall words that ſignified to her, he ſhould not think her polluted, though ſhe had confeſſed to him that the governor had violated her perſon, ſince he knew her will had no part in the action. She parted from him with this oblique permiſſion, to ſave a life he had not reſolution enough to reſign for the ſafety of his honour.

The next morning the unhappy Sapphira attended the governor, and, being led into a remote apartment, ſubmitted to his deſires. Rynſault commended her charms; claimed a familiarity after what had paſſed between them; and with an air of gaiety, in the language of a gallant, bid her return and take her huſband out of priſon: but, continued he, my fair one muſt not be offended that I have taken care he ſhall not be an interruption to our future aſſignations. Theſe laſt words foreboded what ſhe found when ſhe came to the gaol, her huſband executed by order of Rynſault.

It was remarkable, that the woman, who was full of tears and lamentations during the whole courſe of her affliction, uttered neither ſigh nor complaint, but ſtood fixed with grief, at this conſummation of her misfortunes. She betook herſelf to her abode; and, after having in ſolitude paid her devotions to Him who is the avenger of injured innocence, ſhe repaired privately to court. Her perſon, and a certain grandeur of ſorrow negligent of forms, gained her paſſage into the preſence of the duke her ſovereign. As ſoon as ſhe came into the preſence, ſhe broke forth into the following words: "Behold, O mighty Charles, a wretch weary of life, though it has always been ſpent in innocence and virtue. It is not in your power to redreſs my injuries, but it is to avenge them; and, if the protection of the diſtreſſed and the puniſhment of oppreſſors be a taſk worthy of a prince, I bring the Duke of Burgundy ample matter for doing honour to his own great name, and of wiping infamy off mine." When ſhe had ſpoken this, ſhe delivered to the duke a paper reciting her ſtory. He read it with all the emotion that indignation and pity could raiſe in a prince jealous of his honour in the behaviour of his officers and the proſperity of his ſubjects.

Upon an appointed day Rynſault was ſent for to court, and, in the preſence of a few of the council, confronted by Sapphira. The prince aſking, "Do you know that lady?" Rynſault, as ſoon as he could recover his ſurpriſe, told the duke he would marry her, if his highneſs would pleaſe to think that a reparation. The duke ſeemed contented with this anſwer, and ſtood by during the immediate ſolemnization of the ceremony. At the

conclusion

concluſion of it, he told Rynſault, "Thus far have you done as conſtrained by my authority: and I ſhall not be ſatisfied of your kind uſage of her unleſs you ſign a gift of your whole eſtate to her after your deceaſe." To the performance of this alſo the duke was a witneſs. When theſe two acts were executed, the duke, turning to the lady, told her, "It now remains for me to put you in quiet poſſeſſion of what your huſband has ſo bountifully beſtowed on you;" and ordered the immediate execution of Rynſault.

SHORT SKETCH OF IRELAND.

THE inhabitants, in general, of this kingdom, are very far from what they have too often and unjuſtly been repreſented by thoſe of our country who never ſaw them, a nation of wild Iriſh. Miſerable and oppreſſed, as by far too many of them are, an Engliſhman will find as much civility in general as amongſt the ſame claſs in his own country; and, for a ſmall pecuniary conſideration, they will exert themſelves to pleaſe you as much as any people perhaps in the king's dominions. Poverty and oppreſſion will naturally make mankind ſour, rude, and unſociable, and eradicate, or at leaſt ſuppreſs, all the more amiable principles and paſſions of humanity. But it would ſeem unfair and ungenerous to judge of, or decide againſt, the natural diſpoſition of a man reduced by indigence and oppreſſion almoſt to deſperation. Let commerce, agriculture, and arts, but call forth the dormant activity of their genius, and rouſe the native ſpirit of enterprize, which rather lies torpid within them; let liberal laws unfetter their minds, and plenty cheer their tables; they will ſoon ſhew themſelves deſerving to rank with the moſt reſpectable ſocieties in Europe.

The bogs wherewith Ireland is in ſome places overgrown are not injurious to health, as is commonly imagined; the watery exhalations from theſe are neither ſo abundant, nor ſo noxious, as thoſe from marſhes, which become prejudicial from the various animal and vegetable ſubſtances which are left to putrefy as ſoon as the waters are exhaled by the ſun. Bogs are not, as one might ſuppoſe from their blackneſs, maſſes of putrefaction; but, on the contrary, they are of ſuch a texture as to reſiſt putrefaction above any other ſubſtance we know of. A ſhoe, all of one piece of leather, very neatly ſtitched, was taken out of a bog ſome years ago, yet entirely freſh; from the very faſhion of which, there is ſcarcely room to doubt that it had lain there ſome centuries. Butter, called *rouſkin*, hath been found in hollowed trunks of trees, where it had been hid ſo long, that it was become hard and almoſt friable, yet not void of unctuoſity; that the length of time it had been buried was very great we learn from the depth of the bog, which was ten feet, that had grown over it. But the common phenomenon of timber-trees dug out of theſe bogs, not only ſound, but alſo ſo embalmed as afterwards to defy the injuries of time, demonſtrates the antiſeptic quality of them. The horns of the mooſe-deer muſt have lain many centuries in a bog; for the Iriſh hiſtories do not recognize the exiſtence of the animal whereon they grew. Indeed, human bodies have, in many places, been dug up entire, which muſt have lain there for ages. The growth of bogs, however, is variable in different places, from the variety of conditions in the ſituation, ſoil, humidity, and quantity of vegetable food; in ſome places it is very rapid, in others very ſlow; and therefore their altitudes cannot afford any certain meaſure of time. In the manufacturing counties of the north, peat-fuel has become ſo ſcarce, that turburies let from five to eight guineas an acre. In ſome places they are ſo eradicated, there does not remain a trace of them, the ground being now converted into rich meadows and ſweet paſtures.

If we truſt to authorities, we muſt conclude that Ireland was not originally inferior to England, either in the fertility of the ſoil or ſalubrity of the climate. When this country ſhall have felt the happy effects of the late conceſſions and indulgencies of the Britiſh parliament, by repealing ſeveral acts which reſtrained the trade of the kingdom with foreign ports, and allowing the

the exportation of woollen manufactures and glaſs, and ſhall have received further indulgencies from the ſame authority; and when the ſpirit of induſtry ſhall be infuſed, in conſequence of it, into the common people; their country will not be inferior to any place on the globe under the ſame parallel. It is very difficult to ſay, whether foreign or domeſtic cauſes have operated moſt powerfully in laying waſte this fruitful country; which, by being relieved from their late unnatural prohibitions, will be enabled to furniſh a grand proportion of ſupplies to Great Britain, and will unavoidably become of vaſt importance by its reciprocal trade, in reſtraining the increaſe of that of France, who cannot carry on this important branch of traffic without the aſſiſtance of Iriſh wool. The wool of France is ſhort and coarſe, being, in the language of manufacturers, neither fine in the thread nor long in the ſtaple. This obliges them to have recourſe to the wool of Ireland, which poſſeſſes both theſe qualities. Aſſiſted by a pack of Iriſh wool, the French are enabled to manufacture two of their own; which they will no longer be able to procure, as the Iriſh will now work up their own wool, which they uſed to export; great part of which found its way to France, and enabled them to ſupply other markets, to the great prejudice of Britain. The happy effects of it have been already felt: for notwithſtanding it was ſo late as December 23, 1789, that the royal aſſent was given to the taking off their reſtraints on woollen exports, it appears, that on January 10th following, an export-entry was made at the cuſtom-houſe at Dublin of 1300 yards of ſerge for a foreign market, by W. Worthington, Eſq.

SIEGE OF WILLIAMSTADT, WITH A FINE PLATE.

THE town of Williamſtadt will be ever memorable for the gallant defence it made againſt the violent attacks of the French army under General Dumourier. It is ſituated in E. long. 4. 20. lat. 51. 54. on the Maeſe and ſea called Hollands-diep, fourteen miles ſouth of Rotterdam, and ſixteen north-weſt of Breda. It is ſtrongly fortified, and belongs to the Houſe of Orange. It was cloſely inveſted by the French, from the 23d of Feb. to the 16th of March, 1793, during which time it was twice ſummoned to ſurrender; but the gallant Major-general Boetzlaar, its governor, gave for anſwer, That he would defend it with the laſt drop of his blood. Upon this a moſt violent bombardment and cannonade took place, with red-hot balls, bombs, and granades. Only two houſes in the town were burnt by the enemy's ſhells; not one however eſcaped being pierced through with cannon-ſhot. The principal ſtreet, leading from the great church to the main guard, was filled on each ſide with the ruins of the houſes. A 24-pound ſhot paſſed through the dial on the top of the church, and carried the half of it away. Near a hundred large trees, growing within the ramparts, were ſhivered to pieces by ſhots and ſhells. Several red-hot balls paſſed through the roof of the governor's houſe. The Prince of Orange's arms were battered down from the inſide of the main-guard gate by a 24-pound ſhot from a battery on the other ſide the town. Nine of the heavieſt braſs ordnance on the Dutch ramparts were either diſmounted, or the carriages ſhot to pieces; principally from the inceſſant fire of a maſqued battery, which the French had raiſed behind a ſmall wood, on the ſhore of the Maeze, to the S. E. of the fort.

On the 16th of March, about ten in the morning, the French ſet fire to their works, and began to retreat, having ſuſtained a heavy cannonade from the garriſon, and being galled and mowed down by a well-directed fire from the Engliſh gun-boats and Syren Britiſh frigate, commanded by Captain Manley, which took them in flank, and did prodigious execution. At this inſtant the brave governor diſpatched a detachment from the garriſon to harraſs their rear, which they ſo well effected as to take ſeveral pieces of cannon, two mortars, and a great quantity of ammunition and ſiege-utenſils, which were ſafely conveyed into the town.

It is remarkable that, during the whole of this tremendous ſiege, only twelve inhabitants and eight ſoldiers were

were killed:—the French, it is conjectured, loſt about 800 men. General Boetzlaar, the gallant defender of this fortreſs, is now (1793) in his 86th year—a middle-ſized lively man, and much reſembles the late Lord Rodney.—The diſtreſſes of the French during the ſiege, particularly on the Maeze ſide, muſt have been almoſt inſurmountable; having no ſhelter even from the inclemencies of the weather, but in damp holes cut in the beach, and being only ſlightly ſcreened by reeds taken from the river ſide. During the erection of their works, they were expoſed between the two ſevere fires of the fort batteries, and thoſe of the Syren frigate and gun-boats, for two days and nights ſucceſſively. The horrors of the ſcene they left behind are almoſt too ſhocking for recital; the mangled bodies of the French lying uninterred upon their redoubts; and even that of an officer, who laſt fell, all with their ears and fingers cut off, and carried away as relics of triumph!—formed a ſpectacle every way painful to humanity!

As the moſt ample deſcription of this important ſiege, and of the whole war, will be faithfully recorded in the annexed HISTORY of the WARS of ENGLAND, (in which the elegant plate of the ſiege is to be placed,) we deem it unneceſſary to add any thing further on the ſubject at preſent.

DEFEAT OF THE FRENCH AT FAMARS.

WHITEHALL, *May* 26, 1793.

CAPTAIN Crawfurd is this day arrived with diſpatches from Sir James Murray, dated the 24th inſtant, containing the following important information:

That on the morning of the 23d the French camp at Famars was attacked in two different places---on one ſide by the Prince de Cobourg, ſupported by his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York with the Britiſh and Hanoverian troops---and on the other ſide by General Clairfait. The engagement ſoon became general, and continued through the whole of that day; the French maintaining their ground with great reſolution and courage. The ſuperiority of the allied armies, and ſpirited behaviour of the Britiſh troops, manifeſted itſelf in a very early part of the engagement, whereby the French were driven from ſeveral of their redoubts; but the camp was not taken, and night put a ſtop to the operations on both ſides. The attack was to be reſumed in the morning; when it was diſcovered, at day-break, that the French had, during the night, abandoned all their poſts, and carried off their cannon and baggage. Their camp was ſoon after taken poſſeſſion of by the allied armies.

The enemy was attacked by four columns of the Britiſh troops, one of which was commanded by his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, whoſe object was to turn the right wing of the enemy, which he effected in a maſterly manner, without one Britiſh officer having ſuffered on the occaſion. The loſs of the Britiſh troops, though much diſtinguiſhed on this day, was very trifling indeed, there being no officer either killed or wounded, and only 16 non-commiſſioned officers and privates killed. The fine Hanoverian regiment, called the Garde du Corps, behaved moſt gallantly, and ſuffered in proportion, having three of its officers killed, four wounded, and from 60 to 70 privates killed. The remaining loſs amounts to about 300 killed, although General Clairfait's diviſion muſt have loſt many more, having been led on to the moſt dangerous and difficult attacks. The loſs of the French is not known, but many hundreds were the next day found dead on the field. About three hundred of their men were made priſoners, and they loſt ten pieces of cannon.

The Duke of York was on horſeback twenty-two hours, during which time his royal highneſs diſplayed the moſt heroic fortitude and cool judgment.

Captain Crawfurd muſt be particularly mentioned. It was owing to his zeal and management that a great quantity of the French baggage was taken, and his diviſion alſo took about 70 men priſoners.

POETRY.

POETRY.

Written by GENERAL WOLFE, at PORTSMOUTH, and preſented to his LADY, the evening before his Embarkation on the Expedition againſt QUEBEC.

AT length, too ſoon, dear creature,
Receive my fond adieu!
Thy pangs, oh love, how bitter!
Thy joys, how ſhort, how few!
No more thoſe eyes, ſo killing,
The melting glance repeat;
Nor boſom, gently ſwelling,
With love's ſoft tumults beat.

I go where glory leads me,
And dangers point the way;
Though coward love upbraids me,
My honour bids obey.
'Tis honour's boaſting ſtory
My anxious cares reprove;
And points to fame, wealth, glory!
Ah! what are theſe to love!

Two paſſions, vainly ſtriving,
My anxious breaſt divide:
Lo, there, my country bleeding;
And, here, my weeping bride!
But, ah! thy faithful ſoldier
Can true to either prove;
Fame fires my ſoul all over,
And every pulſe beats love.

Then think, where'er I wander,
The ſport of ſeas and wind,
No diſtance hearts can ſunder,
Whom mutual truth has join'd.
Kind heaven, the brave requiting,
Shall ſafe thy ſwain reſtore;
And raptures crown our meeting
With joys ne'er felt before.

JACK AT THE WINDLASS.

A FAVOURITE SONG BY MR. DIBDIN.

COME, all hands, ahoy, to the anchor,
From our friends and relations to go.
Poll blubbers and cries—Devil thank her!
She'll ſoon take another in tow.
This breeze like the Old One will kick us
About on the boiſterous main;
And one day, if Death does not trick us,
Perhaps we may come back again.
With a will-ho then pull away, jolly boys!
At the mercy of fortune we go.
We are in for't; then damme, what folly, boys,
For to be down-hearted, yo-ho!

Our boatſwain takes care of the rigging,
More ſpeſſiouſly when he gets drunk;
The bobſtays ſupplies him with ſwigging,
He the cables cuts up for old junk;
The ſtudding-ſail ſerves for his hammock,
With the cluelines he bought him his call,
While enſigns and jacks in a mammock
Are ſold to buy trinkets for Poll'——
With a will-ho, &c.

Of the purſer this here is the maxim—
Slops, grog, and proviſion, he ſacks;
How he'd look if you was but to ax him
With the captain's clerk who 'tis goes ſnacks.
Oh! he'd find it another-gueſs ſtory,
That would bring his bare back to the cat,
Should his majeſty's honour and glory
Juſt only be told about that.——
With a will-ho, &c.

The chaplain's both holy and godly,
And ſets us for heaven agog;
Yet, to my mind, he looks rather oddly
When he's ſwearing and drinking of grog.
When he took on his knee Betty Bowzer,
And talk'd of her beauty and charms,
Cry'd I, "Which is the way to heav'n now, ſir?"
"You dog," ſays the chaplain, "her arms!"
With a will-ho, &c.

The gunner's a dev'l of a bubber,
The carpenter can't fiſh a maſt,
The ſurgeon's a lazy land-lubber,
The maſter can't ſteer if he's aſkt;
The lieutenants conceit are all wrapp'd in,
The mates hardly merit their ſlip,
And there's never a ſwab but the captain
Knows the ſtem from the ſtern of the ſhip.——
With a will-ho, &c.

Now, fore and aft having abus'd 'em,
Juſt all for my fancy and gig,
Could I find any one that ill-us'd 'em,
Damn me but I'd tickle his wig!—
Jack never was known for a railer;
'Twas fun ev'ry word that I ſpoke;
For the ſign of a true-hearted ſailor
Is—to give and to take a good joke.—
With a will-ho, &c.

On a Gentleman's Pocket being picked of his WATCH.

HE that a watch would wear, thus muſt he do,
Pocket his watch, and watch his pocket too.

FOREIGN OCCURENCES.

From the LONDON GAZETTE, *May* 14, 1793.

Extract of a Letter from Colonel Sir James Murray, Bart. Adjutant-General to the Forces under the command of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, to Mr. Sec. Dundas, dated Tournay, May 10, 1793.

IN conſequence of the movements of the enemy, which gave reaſon to expect an attack upon the Auſtrian and Pruſſian poſts, his royal highneſs determined to march in the morning of the 8th to their ſupport. He arrived about ſix o'clock in the camp of Maulde with the brigade of guards, and a battalion of the 10th regiment of Hanoverian infantry. The Pruſſian general was by this means enabled to reinforce himſelf, at St. Amand and the adjoining wood, with the troops which had occupied that important poſition.

The attack commenced about ſeven o'clock. It was directed againſt the poſts occupied by General Clairfayt, which extended from the Scheldt to the Abbaye de Vicogne, and the Pruſſian corps which defends the wood in the front of the high road, leading from that place to St. Amand.

To theſe points were directed the whole efforts of the French army, which had been previouſly reinforced by all they could bring together from every quarter. General Knobelſdorf having been under the neceſſity of ſending a conſiderable part of his troops to ſupport the Auſtrians at the Abbaye de Vicogne, his royal highneſs, about five o'clock, left two battalions in the camp at Maulde, and marched with the Coldſtream, the flank battalion, and that of the third regiment, to his ſupport. When the battalion of the Coldſtream, which was upon the left, arrived, the enemy had nearly reached the road; they already commanded it, to a great degree, by their fire. The guns attached to the battalion were placed upon it, and by a well-directed and well-ſupported fire kept the battery which was oppoſed to them in check, and did conſiderable execution,

The battalion advanced into the wood, attacked and drove the enemy before them; in going forward they became unfortunately expoſed to the fire of a battery, from which they ſuffered ſeverely. They coolly received the whole fire of the French, both grape and muſquetry, which they returned with great effect; but, finding it impoſſible to carry the battery, they retired in perfect order. In this attack, one officer (Enſign Howard) was wounded—two ſerjeants were killed, and three wounded. Twenty-ſeven rank and file were killed, and forty-two wounded. The French loſt in their battery between forty and fifty from the fire of the Coldſtream.

It is impoſſible to expreſs adequately the ſteady bravery which the Britiſh troops diſplayed. The loſs of ſo many fine fellows muſt be lamented by their countrymen; but their conduct upon this occaſion has added another laurel to the wreath of Britiſh glory. The other battalions received orders to advance, and were poſted in the wood. The French mean-while kept up a very briſk fire upon the road by which they advanced, but fortunately only two men were ſlightly wounded by it. The Britiſh artillery fired with very great effect, and was extremely well ſerved. The troops remained at the poſts which they had taken in the woods till it was dark, and then marched back to St. Amand. The Pruſſians extol greatly the ſpirit and activity of the Britiſh; and General Knobeldorff, in the handſomeſt terms acknowledged that they ſaved his poſts, and decided the fate of the day. Major-general Lake commanded the battalions which went into action; and his royal highneſs declared he was much indebted to him for his exertions.

At the Abbaye de Vicogne and the village of Raimes the action continued, with almoſt equal and unremitting violence, till eight o'clock in the evening: General Clairfayt was every where ſucceſsful in maintaining his ground; the enemy however, though baffled and defeated in their purpoſe, remained in the woods within a very ſmall diſtance of his poſts. During the action they cannonaded the Pruſſian camp near St. Amand.—I am not exactly informed what meaſures they took in order to keep the Prince of Cobourg in check, but it appears that nothing of moment paſſed in that quarter.

Upon the following day, the 9th, there was little firing, and it was not known what might be the intention of the enemy. His royal highneſs thought it therefore proper to let the troops remain till the evening at St. Amand and Maulde: every thing being quiet, and intelligence having been received that the troops oppoſed to General Knobelſdorff were retreating,

treating, they began their march for Tournay; but he was ſtopped at the village of Maulde by a meſſage from General Clairfayt, informing him that the enemy had erected batteries all along his front, as well as upon ſome part of General Knobelſdorff's, which, if they were allowed to complete and to poſſeſs, it would be extremely difficult for him to maintain his poſition. His royal highneſs immediately ſtopped the march of the troops, and went himſelf to St. Amand, where he was met by General Clairfayt and General Knobelſdorff. It was agreed that the Auſtrians and Pruſſians ſhould aſſault the whole of the batteries at day-break, whilſt his royal highneſs retained poſſeſſion of the camp of Maulde.

This was done accordingly, and had the deſired ſucceſs. The enemy had withdrawn their cannon in the night; but they were entirely driven from the batteries, ſeveral killed, and upwards of 100 priſoners taken, with a very inconſiderable loſs. Thus defeated upon every occaſion, the enemy ſeem to have entirely abandoned their deſign: the body, which came from Liſle, has fallen back upon Orchies. There was firing to-day at one of General Clairfayt's poſts, but nothing which had the appearance of a ſerious attack. By the account of deſerters and priſoners, they loſt 4000 men upon the 8th. General Dampierre, who commanded the French, received a cannon-ball in his thigh, and died in conſequence of his wound this morning. He was wounded by the Britiſh artillery; for, at the time that he fell, their cannon only, which were poſted in the wood, were playing upon the French.

The Auſtrians had upwards of 500 killed and wounded, and the Pruſſians 300.

The French priſoners, and the deſerters, of whom there are a vaſt number, ſay, that when the Engliſh appeared they declared they would not fight. The ſame deſerters affirm, that, to make them fight, they were put between two fires.

The bravery and ardour of the Britiſh could not be ſurpaſſed. They ſupported three days hard fatigue, with very little nouriſhment, not only without complaint, but with cheerfulneſs. They had indeed before them the animating example of his royal highneſs the Duke of York, who partook of their hardſhips, and diſplayed the greateſt magnanimity and perſeverance. On the night of the 8th, his royal highneſs ſlept upon ſtraw; and we are happy to hear that he, as well as his whole army, is in the higheſt health and ſpirits. The Britiſh, by their courage, excited the admiration of the whole combined army.

The following authentic letter, dated BAISSEAUX CAMP, *May* 21, will ſhew the relative ſituation of the two armies, when the laſt advices came from that quarter.

"We are encamped here with troops of almoſt all nations of Europe, to the number of 80,000, under the command of Prince Cobourg and Prince Hohenloe, and expect daily to make a general aſſault on the enemy's camp at Famars, about eight miles diſtant from us, where they are ſtrongly entrenched, and defended by various batteries of heavy artillery. The French number 100,000 men, and are prepared for our attack. The conflict muſt be a ſevere one. We are much in want of proviſions, ſo that deciſive meaſures muſt be adopted, or we ſtarve in France. The troops however complain not of their hardſhips, but ſeem emulous who ſhall endure moſt without a murmur. Condé, which is within three miles of us, and in ſight, ſtill holds out; nor has Valenciennes yet ſurrendered. Our cavalry is, without boaſt, perhaps, the fineſt army in the world; it conſiſts of 14,000 men, commanded by officers of great experience and tried valour. We have many princes with us in arms, three of them of our own nation, viz. York, Erneſt, and Adolphus. England muſt be anxious for the fate of our army at this critical period. I have no doubt of the event of the day—we are animated but with one mind; and victory, though it may be dearly purchaſed, muſt eventually be ours." See p. 24 for the ſequel.

OSTEND, *May* 6. Captain Clements, who commands a ſquadron of Britiſh veſſels deſtined to co-operate with the Engliſh, Dutch, and Hanoverian, troops, in the ſiege of Dunkirk, ſent a ſummons to General Paſcal Kerenveyer, the commandant, in which he ſays, "I invite you, Sir, and all the inhabitants of Dunkirk, to take into ſerious conſideration the ſad effects which will reſult to you and your families, from refuſing this conciliatory offer, to prevent a farther effuſion of blood, and for putting an end, on your part, to a war ſo deſtructive to the true intereſts of your country. I am ſent to offer you the protection of a great and honourable power, until your conſtitution ſhall be eſtabliſhed on a ſolid baſis." To which the commandant returned the following anſwer:

SIR,

"I have received the letter you took the trouble to write to me to announce your plans, and the orders with which you are charged. I have only a few words to ſay in reply, and theſe are, that neither I, who have the honour to com-

mand in Dunkirk, nor any of the inhabitants or citizens, will ever liſten to any propoſal tending to diſhonour the French name. It is uſeleſs therefore to loſe time in epiſtolary correſpondence, which would become tedious, and be at leaſt illegal. Do me the honour to attack me in a military manner, and I ſhall have that of anſwering you, for it is in this manner that diſcuſſions ought to be determined between people of our cloth."

FRANKFORT, *May* 9. Yeſterday Landau was again ſummoned to ſurrender. The commandant Gillot read the ſummons of General Szekuli, together with his anſwer to it, upon the parade. The latter was, "That he would not give up the place ſo long as there was one ſtone upon another."

STOCKHOLM, *May* 16. The partition and ſubjugation of Poland is at length completed. The unfortunate king is gone to Grodno; his departure from Warſaw is ſaid to have been one of the moſt affecting ſights that capital ever beheld. His majeſty was given to underſtand by the Ruſſian miniſter, that unleſs he attended the confederation of Grodno, and there conſented to the partition treaty, Prince Louis of Wirtemberg would be appointed to ſucceed him on the throne. The empreſs has publiſhed an ukaſe, or manifeſto, in which her new ſubjects are bound to ſwear allegiance within one month to the ſceptre of Ruſſia, or, in default thereof, all perſons poſſeſſing real or immoveable property are allowed three months to ſell the ſame, and their free departure over the borders; after which, all their property becomes a confiſcature to the ſtate. The Jews are permitted to purſue their public avocations as uſual, and live unmoleſted for their religious opinions; and the clergy are daily to pray, according to a new formula, for her imperial majeſty, her family, and the Great Duke Paul Petrowitz her ſucceſſor.—The King of Pruſſia has alſo directed his letter patent, to the reſpective ſtates and inhabitants of the hitherto Poliſh waywodeſhips of Poſen, Gneſen, Kaliſh, Sieradia, the city and monaſtery of Czeutochowa, the province of Cujavia, the province of Dobrzyn, the waywodeſhips of Rawa and Plotzk, &c. in the circle of the boundaries, and alſo to thoſe of the cities of Dantzic and Thorn; by which thoſe diſtricts are taken under his protection.——The preſent acquiſitions made by Pruſſia, though vaſtly inferior to what Ruſſia gains, (or ſeizes,) are indeed very important; they contain above 1061 ſquare German miles, 5000 Engliſh miles ſquare; 262 towns or cities, 8274 villages, 1,136,389 ſouls. Poland contains about 9500 ſquare leagues, and of this territory the empreſs and the Pruſſian king have violently graſped 5500—that is, about eleven nineteenths, or about ſeven hundred miles more than one half!!!

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

ALTHOUGH the report of a duel between the Duke of York and the Prince of Orange, as inſerted in moſt of the public prints, was not true, yet a very ſerious miſunderſtanding has lately ſubſiſted between them.

When the Britiſh guards were in garriſon at Dort, it was iſſued in general orders by the Prince of Orange, in abſence of the Duke of York, that any officer leaving his poſt ſhould be ſent to priſon—(a priſon ſomewhat like Newgate in London.) This, though a cuſtomary order with the Dutch troops, was ſuch an indignity offered to the high ſpirit of the Engliſh guards, that they applied to the Duke of York, who is ſaid (taking part with his countrymen) to have expreſſed himſelf with much warmth to the Prince of Orange upon the occaſion; and here, we are informed, originated the miſunderſtanding between them. Another circumſtance, tending to widen the breach, happened as follows:

During the time Captain V. C. Berkeley commanded the fleet of gun-boats in the Maeſe, he was out one morning in the boat, reconnoitering the enemy along the Moerdyk ſhore; paſſing near the yacht of the Prince of Orange, becalmed, he was hailed by her, and directed to "take the yacht in tow." Captain Berkeley, on this, aſked whether the Duke of York was on-board? and, on being told that he was not, but that the hereditary prince was, he replied no farther to this ſtrange requiſition than to ſay, "that he was a Britiſh officer on ſervice." This however was not ſatisfactory, and a peremptory order immediately followed, which Captain Berkeley only anſwered by ordering his men to row off. The next day, being on-ſhore near Byten ſluice, a party of Dutch dragoons, headed by two officers, rode down upon him with cocked piſtols, and, after uſing much inſulting language, took him into cuſtody. Captain Berkeley ſaid, he held himſelf a priſoner to the Prince of Orange;

and immediately wrote to the Dutch admiral, Melville, informing him of the extraordinary treatment he had received, and that he had ordered his gun-boats, in conſequence thereof, to act only in their own defence. He likewiſe ſent a full ſtatement of particulars to the Duke of York, requeſting inſtructions from his royal highneſs for his future conduct. What paſſed on this very ſingular occaſion, between the Duke of York and the hereditary Prince of Orange, is not known; but certain it is, that in the courſe of the day thoſe two diſtinguiſhed perſonages came down to Captain Berkeley, when the Prince of Orange diſclaimed all knowledge of the order, either about towing the yacht or for taking Captain Berkeley into cuſtody. He declared that the officers of cavalry were then in irons for their unwarrantable conduct; and apologiſed to Captain Berkeley in the fulleſt, though not the moſt unembarraſſed, manner, for the inſults he had received. And here the affair reſted.

PORTSMOUTH, *May* 2. On Sunday morning arrived at Spithead his majeſty's ſhip Edgar, of 74 guns, Captain Bertie, with two prizes, namely, the Dumourier privateer, of 22 guns and 200 men; and a Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, called the St. Jago, from Lima, in South America, valued at upwards of 800,000l. which had been captured by the Dumourier privateer, about 200 leagues to the weſtward of the Lizard. The captain of the Spaniſh regiſter-ſhip took the French privateer to be an Algerine corſair, having never ſeen the new national colours, or heard of the war; and, from a dread of being made ſlaves, ſtood an action of five hours, in which he had ten men killed, and thirty-ſeven wounded. His upper works were entirely ſhattered; and his people, having been at ſea from the time he left Lima, could no longer ſupport the fatigue of an action, and ſtruck their colours. After ſhe was taken, all the ſpecie, amounting to upwards of 500,000l. and weighing upwards of 60 tons, was moved into the privateer, which kept poſſeſſion of her prize only eleven days, when falling in with the Phaeton frigate, Sir Andrew Snape Douglas, and four ſail of the line of Admiral Gell's ſquadron, ſhe was obliged to ſurrender herſelf a prize to the Britiſh frigate. It is remarkable, that, while the privateer was unſhipping and re-ſhipping the dollars, the weather was fine and calm; and that, after this buſineſs was effected, the wind immediately veered about, and, ſpringing up a briſk gale, carried them right into Admiral Gell's fleet.

The St. Jago was regiſtered by the Spaniſh government for 800,000l. ſo that ſhe is doubtleſs worth a great deal more, and by far the richeſt prize ever carried into Britain, not even excepting the rich Acapulcho ſhip brought in by Lord Anſon, which compenſated for or gilded over all the miſcarriages of that celebrated expedition.

May 10. This day, between ten and eleven o'clock, the treaſure taken out of the above prizes, and conveyed to the gun-wharf, was loaded in twenty-one waggons, provided by Meſſrs. Badger and Clarke, in order to be conveyed to London. The waggons were eſcorted by a party of the life-guards, amidſt the acclamations of thouſands of ſpectators of all deſcriptions.

LONDON, *May* 14. This morning, from half paſt four till near ſix o'clock, the above twenty-one waggons, loaded with Spaniſh treaſure, and ſolid bars of ſilver, weighing from 165 to 167 pounds each, occupied the ſtreets of this metropolis, in their way to the Tower. They were eſcorted by a detachment of horſe, accompanied by ſome naval officers and Britiſh tars. They were received at the Tower by the governor, officers, and garriſon under arms, and conducted to the parade with drums beating, colours flying, and bands of muſic playing. The Britiſh flag flew triumphantly over the tri-coloured one of France upon every waggon, and a vaſt concourſe of people lined the roads and ſtreets, and kept up one continual ſhout of acclamation and triumph. The ſpecie has ſince been removed to the Bullion-office in the Bank.

The following is a ſtate of the cargo of the St. Jago Spaniſh regiſter-ſhip, as taken from the books of the commander of Le General Domourier.

In the Privateer Le General Dumourier.

680 cheſts of dollars, 3000 in each.
33 ditto of gold, jewels, and plate.
Suppoſed value 2,400,000 dollars.

In the Spaniſh Ship the St. Jago.

4,800 Quintals of copper.
2,666 Caſes of bark, of different weights.
2,400 Quintals of cocoa.
11,250 Pounds of fine wool.
450 Ditto of extract of bark.
520 Quintals of pewer.
4,620 Pounds of different medicinal roots.
250 Ditto of balſam of Peru.
145 Quintals of white ſugar.
270 Prepared hides.
12 Barrels of Peruvian honey.
4 Ditto of Peruvian wine.
11 Caſes of Peruvian fruits.

The

The following is a copy from that in Rear-Admiral Gell's poſſeſſion:

72 Quintals of red-wood.
2,662 Caſes of bark, of different weights.
2,400 Quintals of cocoa.
4,887 Ditto of copper.
520 Ditto of lead.
112 Ditto of fine wool.
160 Ditto of white ſugar.
2,247 Pounds of medicinal roots.
388 Ditto of extract of bark.
75 Ditto of greaſe of cocoa.
150 Ditto of balſam of Peru.
119 Prepared hides.
12 Dozen of ſkins for raſping.
A quantity of fine leather.
680 Cheſts of dollars, 3000 in each.
33 Other caſes—7 of gold, the reſt of ſilver.
16 Cheſts of ſilver plate.
12 Alfrontras.
3 Barrels of Peruvian honey.
3 Ditto of Peruvian wine.
11 Caſes of different productions of fruits.
4 Boxes of diamonds.
A vaſt quantity of money in the Spaniſh ſhip not mentioned.

The number of boxes of treaſure entered at the cuſtom houſe, Portſmouth, amounted only to 699; but, in moving them from the St. Jago to Le Dumourier, and from thence to the Edgar, ſeveral of the caſes broke, and the treaſure was repacked into others of a larger ſize, which accounts for the difference in point of number.

By the above account the dollars are calculated at 2,400,000; the officers who have returned in the Edgar and Phaeton, however, eſtimate them at 200,000 more.

It is reported, that ſeven boxes of rough diamonds have been diſcovered, ſecreted in a private part of the St. Jago, ſince the above treaſure was ſent to London; and the ſhip is in conſequence ordered to be broken up and examined.

In every regiſter-ſhip which comes to Spain from South America, great quantities of gold and ſilver are concealed and ſmuggled, and the moſt ingenious methods are practiſed to effect this purpoſe. The St. Jago was built at Lima; there is therefore great probability, on her being ſtripped, immenſe ſtore of wealth will be found that has not yet been diſcovered; and, what is very comfortable to the Britiſh ſeamen, there being no treaty of alliance between Spain and England, by the laws of nations ſhe becomes the ſole property of Admiral Gell's ſquadron, which is as follows:

St. George	98	Rear Admiral GELL Capt. Foley	
Ganges	74	Capt. Molloy	
Edgar	74	Capt. Bertie	
Egmont	74	Capt. Dixon	
Phaeton	36	Capt. Sir A. Douglas.	

Of this treaſure, ſhould that part only be deemed a lawful prize which was removed on-board the privateer, the dividend will be conſiderable. The following is a ſtatement of this ſuppoſition, made on-board the Egmont:

Amount of property removed into the privateer	£500,000	0
Salvage for the St. Jago	62,000	0
Head and gun money for the Dumourier	1,220	0
	£563,720	0

Subdiviſion into Shares:

Admiral Gell	70,465	0
Captains, each	28,186	0
Captains of Marines, Sea-Lieutenants, and Sailing Maſters, each	2,072	10
Lieutenants of Marines, Boatſwains, Gunners, Purſers, Carpenters, Maſters Mates, Surgeons, Pilots, and Chaplains, each	1,194	6
Midſhipmen; alſo Captains Clerks, Sail-makers, Carpenters, Boatſwains and Gunners Mates, Maſters at Arms, Corporals, Cockſwains, Quarter Maſters and Mates, Surgeons Mates, and Serjeants of Marines, each	332	7
Seamen and Marines	34	12

Letters from Madrid adviſe, that all the Engliſh merchant-ſhips, re-captured by the Spaniards in the Mediterranean, &c. are to remain in the Spaniſh ports, till the fate of the St. Jago regiſter-ſhip has been finally determined in England.

One of the moſt vexatious circumſtances that perhaps could occur in the naval ſervice, has happened to the Thetis frigate, commanded by Captain Hartwell. That frigate had taken a French Eaſt-Indiaman, from Pondicherry to France, valued at 130,000l. but, as this rich prize was ſteering to England, ſhe was retaken by the Robert privateer, of Nantes, and carried into France.

MAY 13. This day Rob. Mackreth Eſq. member for Aſhburton, in Devonſhire, was brought up to receive the ſentence of the court of King's Bench, for having ſent a challenge to Sir John Scott, the attorney-general; when the court, after commenting on the heinouſneſs of the offence of duelling, aggravated by the circumſtance of provoking a public character to ſuch conduct, ſentenced Mr. Mackreth

Mackreth to six weeks imprisonment, and to pay a fine of 100l.

General Santerre has made a proposition to the convention of France, that 100,000 men should be embarked to make a descent on England, in order to proclaim an appeal to the English people, on the present war! The same was referred to the committee of public safety.

Mr. John Oliver, the eccentric miller of Highdown-hill in Sussex, died lately at the age of 83 years. His remains were interred near his mill, in a tomb he had caused to be erected there for that purpose near thirty years ago, the ground having been previously consecrated. His coffin, which he had for many years kept under his bed, was painted white; and the body was borne by eight men clothed in the same colour. A girl, about twelve years old, read the burial service, and afterwards, on the tomb, delivered a sermon on the occasion, from Micah, ch. vii. ver. 8, 9. before at least two thousand auditors, whom curiosity had led to this extraordinary funeral. The great concourse of people present occasioned some rioting, which but ill accorded with the solemn ceremony. The deceased, notwithstanding his eccentricity, was a man of good moral character, and a liberal benefactor to the poor in his neighbourhood. His tomb is covered with passages from scripture, and hieroglyphical figures.

The following dreadful accident happened a few days ago, in Waterford harbour:—The Pilot cutter commanded by Lieutenant Gunter, was about to sail with some vessels under her protection, and, on firing a gun for the convoy to get under way, the person on duty unluckily mistook the gun, and fired one loaded with shot, which killed a corporal onboard a transport on the spot—his head was completely severed from his body.

MAY 23. The following fleet, under the command of Lord Hood, commander in chief of all the fleets, sailed from Spithead for the Mediterranean, viz.

	Guns.	
Victory	110	Vice-admiral Ld. Hood. Rear-ad. Sir H. Parker, Capt. Knight.
Bedford	74	Man.
Berwick	74	Sir John Collins.
Robust	74	Elphinstone.
Leviathan	74	Hon. H. S. Conway.
Captain	74	Reeve.
Ardent	64	R. M. Sutton.
St. Alban's	64	Vashon.
Phaeton	38	Sir A. S. Douglas.
L'Aimable	32	Sir H. Burrard.
Juno	32	S. Hood.
Castor	32	Trowbridge.
Mermaid	32	Trigge.
Tartar	28	Capt. Guyot.
Amphitrite	24	Hunt.
Vulcan	14	Lord Garlies.
Conflagration (fireship)	14	Freemantle.
Weazel	12	Taylor.
Tisiphone	12	Martin.
Dolphin (hospital ship)		May.
Camel (storeship)		——.

They are to be joined by the following line-of-battle ships now at sea, viz.

Under Admiral Cosby.

Windsor Castle	98	Vice-Admiral Cosby. Capt. Sir J. Byard.
Princess Royal	98	Purvis.
Illustrious	74	Frederick.
Alcide	74	Linzee.
Terrible	74	Ludwige.

Under Admiral Hotham.

Britannia	100	Vice-Adm. Hotham, Capt. Holloway.
Agamemnon	74	Nelson.
Fortitude	74	Young.
Colossus	74	Pole.
Courageux	74	Waldegrave.

Under Rear-Admiral Gell.

St. George	98	Rear-Admiral Gell. Capt. Foley.
Egmont	74	Dixon.

With another ship of the line, not yet ordered, 15 frigates, fireships, sloops, cutters, &c. in all 60 pendants, and are to be joined with a fleet of 35 ships of different rates belonging to Spain.

As this immense force cannot be intended to act only against the French fleet in that sea, not above one third of its number or strength, and as the ships carry out a number of flat-bottomed boats, there can be no doubt whatever, but that both Toulon and Marseilles will be attacked, and probably at the same time. —Hence the month of June bids fair to be pregnant with the most important events of the whole campaign, which the public may depend on seeing fully and faithfully recorded in this publication, from official documents of the most authentic kind.

PLYMOUTH, *May* 24. The Surprize cutter privateer, of London, mounting 12 guns, commanded by Captain William Seward, is arrived from a cruise to the westward. On the 12th instant she fell in with a large French East Indiaman, mounting 12 guns, with 42 men, commanded by Capt. Jan Vosier, whom she engaged for two hours and a half, when the Resolution lugger privateer, belonging to Guernsey, commanded by Captain Le Lacheur, mounting 14 guns, also came up and engaged her, which continued for five hours longer, during

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all which time the Frenchmen fought deſperately, but were at length obliged to ſtrike to the privateer in ſight of the French coaſt; and ſhe is this evening arrived with the Surprize, and ſafe at anchor in Hamoaze. She is valued at upwards of 60,000l. having on-board 1,300 bags of pepper, a large quantity of ſugar, cotton, dye-wood, &c.

LIST *of the principal* PRIZES *taken from the* FRENCH *during the laſt month.*

La Palaora Neuſtra Seigniora de la Conception, from Vera Cruz to Cadiz, with ſugar, hides, &c. 36,000 dollars, and ſome gold, captured by a French privateer, was re-captured by the Achilles, of Weymouth, and carried into Baltimore in Ireland. She is a very rich prize.

The Lord Stanley, of 20 guns, has taken and ſent into Kinſale, a French veſſel from Guadaloupe, called La Julia Cherée, worth 20,000l.

The Earl of Derby, of 20 guns, has taken a St. Domingo ſhip, and ſent her into Cork: value very conſiderable.

The Princeſs Elizabeth, of 16 guns, has ſent to Falmouth a French Weſt-India ſhip, value 32,000l.

The Hope, Peters, a letter of marque, has taken and ſent into Cork, La Fayette, a French privateer, mounting 16 guns and ſix ſwivels, with 70 men on-board, after an obſtinate engagement, which laſted two glaſſes and a half, in which ſeveral men were killed and wounded on both ſides. She is a fine new veſſel, fitted out at Dunkirk, and had taken four Engliſh veſſels, which have been retaken by Admiral Coſby's fleet.

The Hon. A. F. Cochrane, of the Hind frigate, has ſent into Spithead a re-captured ſhip, from Jamaica to Briſtol, valued at 100,000l. and a French brig-rigged privateer, of 18 carriage guns, 14 of them mounted, and 41 men; a great part of her complement having been ſent into France with two Engliſh prizes. Captain Cochrane has alſo taken and ſent into Falmouth a galliot laden with 100 puncheons of Spemaceti oil, French property, the bottom neutral. The Hind has likewiſe ſent into Falmouth a French privateer, called La Gorget, belonging to Nantz, mounting 24 guns, and 206 men, which ſhe had taken after exchanging a few ſhot. The privateer had ſailed from Nantz about ten days, and had captured two of our Weſt-India veſſels. She has alſo captured and ſent into Limerick La Liberté privateer, of 12 guns and 55 men; and l'Egalité, of eight guns and 50 men; both of St. Maloes, and the property of the ſame owners. Excluſive of the above, the Hind has ſent into Plymouth, a French privateer; and the Neptune, Du Leerque, a Swede, bound from Cadiz to Havre, richly laden with French property.

The Circe frigate, Captain Yorke, has re-captured and ſent in a valuable merchantman, worth about 40,000l.

His majeſty's frigate Brilliant, Captain Mark Robinſon, has taken and brought to the Nore, after a chaſe of nine hours and a half, the French privateer, Le Poſtillion de Dumourier, belonging to Dunkirk, burthen 70 tons, mounting 20 guns, and 50 men: the is a new veſſel, well equipped, a remarkable faſt ſailer, and had taken two prizes.

The Lottery privateer, of Weymouth, has cut out of the harbour of Pero, near the Iſle de Bas, La Marianna, a ſloop of 50 tons, Capt. Core, and a guarda-coſta, of 30 tons, Capt. Semons, laden with cider, &c. and ſtores for the Breſt fleet; the ſloop is arrived at Weymouth, and the guarda-coſta off Jerſey.

Admiral Goodall's ſquadron has taken fifteen French veſſels from Marſeilles and Cette, with rich cargoes: they are ſent into Gibraltar.

The French brigantine La Maria Agatha, of 120 tons burthen, bound from Savannah to Nantz, laden with rice, indigo, and tar, is taken by the Juno frigate. She is a valuable prize.

The Princeſs Elizabeth privateer, of Liverpool, has brought into Falmouth Le Bon Frere, a French ſhip of about 400 tons burthen, from Port-au-prince for Bourdeaux, laden with coffee, indigo, and ſugar, and very valuable.

The Surprize cutter has brought in a French brig, called the Aimable Aurora, from Guadaloupe to Bourdeaux, with ſugar and coffee; a valuable prize.

The Alarm frigate, Captain Robertſon, has brought in a French ſchooner privateer of eight guns and 57 men, which ſhe took after a chaſe of five hours.

The Mutine cutter has taken the Daniſh ſhip Emanuel, bound from Hambro' to Toulon, laden with naval ſtores, and ſent her into Gibraltar. The Mutine brings an account of between thirty and forty valuable prizes having been captured by the different cruiſers on that ſtation, and ſent into Gibraltar.

Captain Thompſon, of the Mary privateer, belonging to Liverpool, has brought in a large St. Domingo-man, of 800 tons burthen, with a rich cargo.

The Aimable frigate, Capt. Sir H. Burrard, from the weſtward, paſſed through Cowes roads, the 22d inſtant, with a French privateer, and two French merchantmen, under charge for Spithead.

HISTORY OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

[*Continued from page* 6.]

THE moſt intereſting particulars of the Chineſe Hiſtory relate only to the incurſions of the Tartars, who at laſt conquered the whole empire, and who ſtill continue to hold the ſovereignty; though by transferring the ſeat of the empire to Peking, and adopting the Chineſe language, manners, &c. Tartary would ſeem rather to have been conquered by China, than China by Tartary. In the tenth century of the Chriſtian era, the Kitan Tartars firſt got a footing in China. The Kitan were a people of eaſtern Tartary, who dwelt to the north and north-eaſt of the province of Pecheli in China, lying without the great wall. Theſe people, having ſubdued the country between Korea and Kaſhgar, became much more troubleſome to the Chineſe than all the other Tartars. Their empire commenced about the year 916, in the fourth year of the 14th Chineſe dynaſty or ſucceſſion, called *Hew-lyang*. In 946, Mingt-ſong, ſecond emperor of the 15th dynaſty, being dead, Sheking-tang his ſon-in-law, rebelled againſt his ſon and ſucceſſor, whom he deprived of his crown and life. This he accompliſhed by means of an army of 50,000 men, furniſhed by the Kitan Tartars. Fi-ti, the ſon of Mingt-ſong, being unable to reſiſt the uſurper, fled to the city Ghey-chew; where, ſhutting himſelf up with his family and all his valuable effects, he ſet fire to the palace, and was burnt to aſhes. On his death, Sheking-tang aſſumed the title of emperor: founded the 16th dynaſty, and changed his name to that of *Kaut-ſu*. But, the Kitan general refuſing to acknowledge him, he was obliged to purchaſe a peace by yielding up to the Tartars 16 cities in the province of Pecheli, beſides a yearly preſent of 300,000 pieces of ſilk.

This ſubmiſſion ſerved only to inflame the avarice and ambition of the Kitan Tartars. In 959, they broke the treaty, invaded the empire, and continued their incurſions. Tay-tſong, the Chineſe emperor, oppoſed them with various ſucceſs; but at laſt, in 978, the barbarians became ſo ſtrong as to lay ſiege to a conſiderable city. Tay-tſong detached 300 ſoldiers, each carrying a light in his hand, againſt them in the night-time, with orders to approach as near as poſſible to the Tartar camp. The barbarians, imagining, by the number of lights, that the whole Chineſe army was at hand, immediately fled, and, falling into the ambuſcades laid for them by the Chineſe general, were almoſt all cut to pieces.

This check, however, did not long put a ſtop to the ravages of the Kitan. In the year 999, they laid ſiege to a city in the province of Pecheli; but Ching-tſong, ſucceſſor to Tay-tſong, came upon them with his army ſo ſuddenly, that they betook themſelves to flight. The emperor was adviſed to take advantage of their conſternation, and recover the country which had been yielded to them; but, inſtead of purſuing his victory, he bought a peace, by conſenting to pay annually 100,000 tael (about 34,000l.) and 200,000 pieces of ſilk.

From this time the Kitan remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of their Chineſe dominions till the year 1117. Whey-tſong, at that time emperor, being able neither to bear their ravages nor by himſelf to put a ſtop to them, reſolved upon a remedy which at laſt proved worſe than the diſeaſe. This was to call in the eaſtern Tartars, or Nu-che, to deſtroy the kingdom of the Kitan. From this he was diſſuaded by moſt of his miniſters; but, diſregarding their ſalutary advice, he joined his forces to thoſe of the Nu-che. The Kitan were then every where defeated; and at laſt reduced to ſuch extremity, that thoſe who remained were forced to leave their country, and fly to the mountains of the weſt.

Thus the empire of the Kitan was totally deſtroyed, but nothing to the advantage of the Chineſe, for the Tar-

tar general, elated with his conqueſt, gave the name of *Kin* to his new dominion, aſſumed the title of emperor, and began to think of aggrandizing himſelf and enlarging his empire. For this purpoſe, he immediately broke the treaties concluded with the Chineſe emperor; and, invading the provinces of Pecheli and Chenſi, made himſelf maſter of the greater part of them; Whey-tſong, finding himſelf in danger of loſing his dominions, made ſeveral advantageous propoſals to the Tartar; who, ſeeming to comply with them, invited him to come and ſettle matters by a perſonal conference. The Chineſe monarch complied: but, on his return, the terms agreed on ſeemed intolerable to his miniſters; ſo that they told him the treaty could not ſubſiſt, and that the moſt cruel war was preferable to ſuch an ignominious peace. The Kin monarch, being informed of all that paſſed, had recourſe to arms, and took ſeveral cities. Whey-tſong was weak enough to go in perſon to hold a ſecond conference; but, on his arrival, was immediately ſeized by the Tartar. He was kept priſoner under a ſtrong guard during the remaining part of his life; and ended his days in 1126, in the deſert of Shamo, having nominated his eldeſt ſon Kin-tſong to ſucceed him.

Kin-tſong began his reign with putting to death ſix miniſters of ſtate, who had betrayed his father into the hands of the Kin Tartars. The barbarians in the mean time purſued their conqueſts without oppoſition. They croſſed the Yellow River, which an handful of troops might have prevented; and, marching directly towards the imperial city, took and plundered it. Then, ſeizing the emperor and his conſort, they carried them away captives: but many of the principal lords, and ſeveral of the miniſters, preferring death to ſuch an ignominious bondage, killed themſelves. The Kin being informed by the Empreſs *Meng* that ſhe had been divorced, they left her behind. This proved the means of ſaving the empire; for by her wiſdom and prudence ſhe got the crown placed on the head of Kau-tſong, ninth ſon of the emperor.

Kau-tſong fixed his court at Nanking, but ſoon after was obliged to remove it. He made ſeveral efforts to recover ſome of his provinces from the Kin, but without effect. Ili-tſong the Kin monarch, in the mean time, endeavoured to gain the eſteem of his Chineſe ſubjects by paying a regard to their learning and learned men, and honouring the memory of Confucius. Some time after, he advanced to Nanking, and took it: but, receiving advice that the general of the ſouthern Chineſe was advancing by long marches to the relief of that city, they ſet fire to the palace, and retired northward. However, the general arrived time enough to fall upon his rear-guard, which ſuffered very much; and the Kin never after dared to croſs the river Kyang. In a few years afterwards the Chineſe emperor ſubmitted to become tributary to the Kin, and concluded a peace with them on very diſhonourable terms.

From this time to the year 1210 nothing remarkable occurs in the Chineſe hiſtory; but this year, Jenghiz-khan, chief of the weſtern Tartars, or *Moguls*, quarrelled with Yong-tſi, emperor of the Kin; and at the ſame time the King of Hya, diſguſted at being refuſed aſſiſtance againſt Jenghiz-khan, threatened him with an invaſion on the weſt ſide. Yong-tſi prepared for his defence; but in 1211, receiving news that Jenghiz-khan was advancing ſouthward with his whole army, he was ſeized with fear, and made propoſals of peace, which were rejected. In 1212, the Mogul generals forced the great wall; or, according to ſome writers, had one of the gates treacherouſly opened to them, and made incurſions as far as Peking, the capital of the Kin empire. In autumn they laid ſiege to the city of Taytong-fu; where Jenghiz-khan met with conſiderable reſiſtance. Having loſt a vaſt number of men, and being himſelf wounded by an arrow, he was obliged to raiſe the ſiege, and retire into Tartary; after which the Kin retook ſeveral cities. The next year, however, Jenghiz-khan reentered China; retook the cities which the Kin had reduced the year before; and overthrew their armies in two bloody

bloody battles, in one of which the ground was ſtrewed with dead bodies for upwards of four leagues.

In 1224, the Kin emperor died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Shew, who made peace with the King of Hya: but next year that kingdom was entirely deſtroyed by Jenghiz-khan. In 1226, Oktay, ſon to Jenghiz-khan, marched into Honan, and beſieged Kay-fong-fu, capital of the Kin empire; but was obliged to withdraw into Shenſi, where he took ſeveral cities, and cut in pieces an army of 30,000 men. In 1227, Jenghiz-khan died, after having deſired his ſons Oktay and Toley to purſue his conqueſts.

After the death of that great conqueror, the war was carried on with various ſucceſs; but, though the Moguls took above 60 important poſts in the province of Shenſi, they found it impoſſible to force Ton-quan, which it behoved them to do in order to penetrate effectually into Honan. In April 1231, they took the capital of Shenſi, and defeated the Kin army which came to its relief. Here one of the officers deſired Prince Toley to demand a paſſage from the Song through the country of Han-chong-fu. This propoſal Toley communicated to his brother Oktay, who approved of it as being conformable to the dying advice of their father. Hereupon Toley, having aſſembled all his forces, ſent a meſſenger to the Song generals to demand a paſſage through their territories. This, however, they not only refuſed, but put the meſſenger to death; which ſo enraged Toley that he ſwore to make them repent of it, and was ſoon as good as his word. He decamped in Auguſt 1231; and, having forced the paſſages, put to the ſword the inhabitants of two cities in the diſtrict of Han-chong-fu. Then having cut down rocks to fill up deep abyſſes, and made roads through places almoſt inacceſſible, he came and beſieged the city of Han-chong-fu itſelf. The miſerable inhabitants fled to the mountains on his approach, and more than 100,000 of them periſhed. After this, Toley divided his forces, conſiſting of 30,000 horſe, into two bodies. One of theſe went weſtward to Myen-chew: from thence, after opening the paſſages of the mountains, they arrived at the river Kyaling. This they croſſed on rafts made of the wood of demoliſhed houſes; and then, marching along its banks, ſeized many important poſts. At laſt, having deſtroyed more than 140 cities, towns, or fortreſſes, they returned to the army. On the other ſide, Oktay advanced, in October, towards Pu-chew, a city of Shen-ſi; which being taken after a vigorous defence, he prepared to paſs the Yellow River. Toley, after ſurmounting incredible difficulties, arrived in December on the borders of Honan, and made a ſhow as if he deſigned to attack the capital of the Kin empire. On his firſt appearance in Honan through a paſſage ſo little ſuſpected, every body was filled with terror and aſtoniſhment, ſo that he proceeded for ſome time without oppoſition. At laſt the emperor ordered his generals, Hota, Ilapua, and others, to march againſt the enemy. Toley boldly attacked them, but was obliged to retire, which he did in good order. Hota was for purſuing him, ſaying that the Mogul army did not exceed 30,000 men, and that they ſeemed not to have eaten any thing for two or three days. Ilapua, however, was of opinion that there was no occaſion for being ſo haſty, as the Moguls were incloſed between the rivers Han and Wang-ho, ſo that they could not eſcape. This negligence they had ſoon occaſion to repent of: for Toley, by a ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of their heavy baggage; which accident obliged them to retire to Tang-chew. From thence they ſent a meſſenger to acquaint the emperor that they had gained the battle, but concealed the loſs of their baggage. This good news filled the court with joy; and the people who had retired into the capital for its defence left it again, and went into the country: but, in a few days after, the van-guard of the Moguls, who had been ſent by the emperor Oktay, appeared in the field, and carried off a great number of thoſe that had quitted the city.

In January 1232, Oktay encamped in the diſtrict of Kay-fong-fu, capital of the Kin empire, and ſent his general Suputay to beſiege the city. At that time the place was near 30 miles in circumference:

cumference: but, having only 40,000 ſoldiers to defend it, as many more from the neighbouring cities, and 20,000 peaſants, were ordered into it; while the emperor publiſhed an affecting declaration, animating the people to defend it to the laſt extremity. Oktay, having heard with joy of his brother Toley's entrance into Honan, ordered him to ſend ſuccours to Suputay. On the other hand, the Kin generals advanced with 150,000 men to relieve the city; but being obliged to divide their forces, in order to avoid in part the great road which Toley had obſtructed with trees, they were attacked by that prince at a diſadvantage, and, after a faint reſiſtance, defeated with great ſlaughter and the loſs of both their generals, one killed and the other taken. The emperor now ordered the army at all the fortified places to march to the relief of Kay-fong-fu. They aſſembled accordingly, to the number of 110,000 foot and 15,000 horſe; and were followed by vaſt numbers of people, who expected by their means to be protected from the enemy. But many of theſe troops having deſerted, and the reſt being enfeebled by the fatigues of their march, they diſperſed on the approach of their purſuers, who killed all they found in the highways. After this the Moguls took Ton-quan and ſome other conſiderable poſts; but were obliged to raiſe the ſiege of Loyang by the bravery of the governor Kyang-ſhin, notwithſtanding he had only 3 or 4000 ſoldiers under him, while his enemies were 30,000 ſtrong. He placed his worſt ſoldiers on the wall, putting himſelf at the head of 400 brave men; whom he ordered to go naked, and whom he led to all dangerous attacks. He invented engines to caſt large ſtones, which required but few hands to play them, and aimed ſo true as to hit at 100 paces diſtance. When their arrows failed, he cut thoſe ſhot by the enemy into four parts; pointed them with pieces of braſs coin; and diſcharged them from wooden tubes with as much force as bullets are from a muſket. Thus he harraſſed the Moguls for three months ſo grievouſly, that they were obliged, notwithſtanding their number, to abandon the enterpriſe.

Oktay, at laſt, notwithſtanding his ſucceſſes, reſolved to return to Tartary; and offered the Kin emperor peace, provided he became tributary, and delivered up to him 27 families, which he named. Theſe offers were very agreeable to the emperor; but Suputay, taking no notice of the treaty, puſhed on the ſiege of the capital with more vigour than ever. By the help of the Chineſe ſlaves in his army, the Mogul general ſoon filled the ditch; but all his efforts ſeemed only to inſpire the beſieged with new vigour. The Moguls at that time made uſe of artillery, but were unable to make the leaſt impreſſion upon the city walls. They raiſed walls round thoſe they beſieged, which they fortified with ditches, towers, and battlements. They proceeded alſo to ſap the walls of the city; but were very much annoyed by the artillery of the beſieged, eſpecially by their bombs, which ſinking into the galleries, and burſting under ground, made great havock among the miners. For 16 days and nights the attacks continued without intermiſſion; during which time a great number of men periſhed on both ſides; at length, Suputay, finding that he could not take the city, withdrew his troops, under pretence of conferences being on foot. Soon after the plague began in Kay-fong-fu, and raged with ſuch violence, that, in 50 days, 900,000 biers were carried out, beſides a vaſt multitude of the poorer ſort who could not afford any.

In a ſhort time, two unluckly accidents occaſioned the renewal of the war; which now put an end to the empire of the Kin. Gan-yong, a young Mogul lord, having aſſumed the government of ſome cities in Kyang-nan, and killed the officer ſent to take poſſeſſion of them, declared for the Kin. The emperor unwarily took Gan-yong into his ſervice, and gave him the title of Prince. Upon this Oktay ſent an envoy, attended by 30 other perſons, to enquire into the affair, but the Kin officers killed them all, without being puniſhed by the emperor. Suputay, having informed his maſter of all theſe proceedings, was ordered to continue the war in Honan. Shew-fu now commanded his officers to unite their troops for the defence of the capital; but, before

before his orders could be obeyed, they were attacked, and defeated, one after another, by the Moguls. This obliged him to raiſe ſoldiers from among the peaſants, for whoſe ſubſiſtence the people were taxed three tenths of the rice they poſſeſſed. The city began now to be diſtreſſed for want of proviſions; and, as it was but in a bad poſture of defence, the emperor marched with an army againſt the Moguls. His expedition proved unfortunate; for, ſending part of his army to beſiege a city called Why-chew, it was totally cut in pieces, and Suputay a ſecond time ſat down before the capital, which was delivered up by treachery, and Suputay put all the males of the imperial race to death; but, by the expreſs command of Oktay, ſpared the inhabitants, who are ſaid to have amounted to one million four hundred thouſand families. After this diſaſter the unhappy monarch left his troops at Quey-te-fu, and retired to Juning-fu, a city in the ſouthern part of Honan, attended only by four hundred perſons. Here the diſtance of the Moguls made him think of living at eaſe; but, while he flattered himſelf with theſe vain hopes, the enemy's army arrived before the city and inveſted it. The garriſon were terrified by their approach; but were encouraged by the emperor, and his brave general Hu-ſye-hu, to hold out to the laſt. As there were not in the city a ſufficient number of men, the women, dreſſed in men's clothes, were employed to carry wood, ſtones, and other neceſſary materials, to the walls. All their efforts, however, were ineffectual. They were reduced to ſuch extremities, that for three months they fed on human fleſh, killing the old and feeble, as well as many priſoners, for food. This being known to the Moguls, they made a general aſſault in January 1234. The attack continued from morning till night; but at laſt the aſſailants were repulſed. In this action, however, the Kin loſt all their beſt officers; upon which the emperor reſigned the crown to Cheng-lin, a prince of the blood. Next morning, while the ceremony of inveſting the new emperor was performing, the enemy mounted the ſouth walls, which were defended only by two hundred men; and, the ſouth gate being at the ſame time abandoned, the whole army broke in. They were oppoſed, however, by Hu-ſye-hu; who, with one thouſand ſoldiers, continued to fight with amazing intrepidity. In the mean time Shew-fu, ſeeing every thing irreparably loſt, lodged the ſeal of the empire in a houſe, and then, cauſing ſheaves of ſtraw to be ſet round it, ordered it to be ſet on fire as ſoon as he was dead. After giving this order he hanged himſelf, and his commands were executed by his domeſtics. Hu-ſye-hu, who ſtill continued fighting with great bravery, no ſooner heard of the tragical death of the emperor, than he drowned himſelf in the river Ju; as did alſo five hundred of his moſt reſolute ſoldiers. The ſame day the new emperor, Cheng-lin, was ſlain in a tumult; and thus a total end was put to the dominion of the Kin Tartars in China.

The empire of China was now to be ſhared between the Song, or ſouthern Chineſe, and the Moguls. It had been agreed upon, that the province of Honan ſhould be delivered up to the Song as ſoon as the war was finiſhed. But they, without waiting for the expiration of the term, or giving Oktay notice of their proceeding, introduced their troops into Kay-fong-fu, Loyang, and other conſiderable cities. On this the Mogul general reſolved to attack them; and, repaſſing the Yellow River, cut in pieces part of the garriſon of Loyang, while they were out in ſearch of proviſions for the army.

In 1236, the Moguls made great progreſs, took ſeveral cities, and put vaſt numbers to the ſword. Prince Kotovan forced the paſſages into the diſtrict of Han-chong-fu in the province of Shenſi, which he entered with an army of 500,000 men. Here a terrible battle was fought between the vaſt army of the Moguls and the Chineſe troops, who had been driven from the paſſages they defended. The latter conſiſted only of 10,000 horſe and foot, who were almoſt entirely cut off; and the Moguls loſt ſuch a number of men, that the blood is ſaid to have run for two leagues together. After this victory the Moguls entered Se-chwen, which they almoſt entirely reduced, committing ſuch barbarities, that in one

one city 40,000 people chose rather to put an end to their own lives than submit to such cruel conquerors.

In 1237, the Moguls received a considerable check before the city of Gan-tong in Kyang-nan, the siege of which they were obliged to raise with loss. In 1238 they besieged Lu-chew, another city in the same province. They surrounded it with a rampart of earth and a double ditch; but the Chinese general ordered their intrenchments to be filled with immense quantities of herbs steeped in oil, and then set on fire, while he shot stones upon them from a tower seven stories high. At the same time a vigorous sally was made; and the Mogul army, being thrown into the utmost disorder, were obliged finally to abandon the siege, and retire northwards.

In 1255, they re-entered the province of Se-chwen; but still met with vigorous opposition. In 1259, they undertook the siege of Ho-chew, a strong city to the west of Peking, defended by Vang-kyen, a very able officer, who commanded a numerous garrison. The siege continued from the month of February till August: during which time the Moguls lost an immense number of men. On the 10th of August they made a general assault in the night. They mounted the walls before the governor had intelligence; but were soon attacked by him with the utmost fury. The Mogul emperor, Meng-ko, himself came to the scalade; but his presence was not sufficient to overcome the valour of Vang-kyen. At the same time the scaling ladders of the Moguls were blown down by a storm; upon which a terrible slaughter ensued, and amongst the rest fell the emperor himself. Upon this disaster the Mogul generals agreed to raise the siege, and retire towards Shen-si.

On the death of Meng-ko, Hupilay, who succeeded him, laid siege to Vu-chang-fu, a city not far distant from the capital of the Song empire. At this the emperor being greatly alarmed, distributed immense sums among his troops; and, having raised a formidable army, marched to the relief of Vu-chang-fu. Unfortunately the command of this army was committed to the care of Kya-tse-tau, a man without courage or integrity; who, being overcome with fear, not daring to take any effectual step for its relief, made proposals of peace. A treaty was accordingly concluded, by which Kya-tse-tau engaged to pay an annual tribute of about fifty thousand pounds in silver, and as much in silk; acknowledging likewise the sovereignty of the Moguls over the Song empire. In consequence of this treaty, the Moguls retreated after the boundaries of the two empires had been fixed, and repassed the Kyang; but 170 of them, having staid on the other side of the river, were put to death by Kya-tse-tau.

This wicked minister totally concealed from the emperor his having made such a shameful treaty with the Moguls; and the 170 soldiers massacred by his order gave occasion to a report that the enemy had been defeated; so that the Song court believed they had been compelled to retreat by the superior valour and wisdom of Kya-tse-tau. This proved the ruin of the empire; for in 1260, the Mogul emperor sent Hau-king to the Chinese court to execute the treaty according to the terms agreed on with Kya-tse-tau. The minister, dreading the arrival of this envoy, imprisoned him near Kanking; and took all possible care that neither Hupilay, nor Li-tsong the Chinese emperor, should never hear any thing of him.

It was impossible such unparalleled conduct could fail to produce a new war. Hupilay's courtiers incessantly pressed him to revenge himself on the Song for their treacherous behaviour, and he soon published a manifesto against them, which was followed by a renewal of hostilities in 1268. The Mogul army amounted to 300,000 men; but, notwithstanding their numbers, little progress was made till the year 1271. Syan-yang and Fan-ching, cities in the province of Se-chew, had been besieged for a long time ineffectully; but this year an *Igur* lord advised Hupilay to send for several of those engineers out of the west who knew how to cast stones of 150 pounds weight out of their engines which made holes of seven or eight feet wide in the strongest walls. Two of these engineers were accordingly

accordingly ſent for; and, after giving a ſpecimen of their art before Hupilay, were ſent to the army in 1272. In the beginning of 1273 they planted their engines againſt the city of Fan-ching, and preſently made a breach in the walls. After a bloody conflict the ſuburbs were taken; and ſoon after the Moguls made themſelves maſters of the walls and gates of the city. Nevertheleſs a Chineſe officer, with only 100 ſoldiers, reſolved to fight from ſtreet to ſtreet. This he did for a long while with the greateſt obſtinacy, killing vaſt numbers of the Moguls; and the parties are ſaid to have been ſo much overcome with thirſt that they drank human blood to quench it. The Chineſe ſet fire to the houſes, that the great beams, falling down, might embarraſs the way of their purſuers; but at laſt being quite wearied out, and filled with deſpair, they put an end to their own lives. After the taking of Fan-ching, all the materials which had ſerved at the ſiege were tranſported to Syan-yang. The two engineers poſted themſelves againſt a wooden entrenchment raiſed on the ramparts. This they quickly demoliſhed; and the beſieged were ſo intimidated by the noiſe and havock made by the ſtones caſt from theſe terrible engines, that they immediately ſurrendered.

Notwithſtanding the progreſs of the Moguls, vaſt territories ſtill remained to be ſubdued, before they could become maſters of all the Chineſe empire. On the death of the Chineſe emperor, the mandarins raiſed to the throne his brother, named Te-ping, at that time but eight years of age. His army conſiſted of no fewer than 200,000 men; but being utterly void of diſcipline, and entirely ignorant of the art of war, they were defeated by 20,000 Mogul troops. Nor was their fleet more ſucceſsful; for being put in confuſion by that of the Moguls, and the emperor in danger of falling into their hands, one of the officers, taking him on his ſhoulders, jumped with him into the ſea, where they were both drowned. Moſt of the mandarins followed this example, as did alſo the empreſs and miniſter, all the ladies and maids of honour, and multitudes of others, inſomuch that 400,000 people are thought to have periſhed that day. Thus ended the Chineſe race of emperors; and the Mogul dynaſty, known by the name of *Ywen*, now commenced.

Though no race of men that ever yet exiſted were more remarkable for cruelty and barbarity than the Moguls; yet it doth not appear that the emperors of the Ywen dynaſty were in any reſpect worſe than their predeceſſors. On the contrary, Hupilay, by the Chineſe called *Shi-tſu*, found the way of reconciling the people to his government, and even of endearing himſelf to them ſo much, that the reign of his family was ſtyled by the Chineſe *the wiſe government*. In the third year of his reign he formed a deſign of reducing the iſlands of Japan, and the kingdoms of Tonquin and Cochinchina. Both theſe enterprizes ended unfortunately, but the firſt remarkably ſo; for, of 100,000 perſons employed in it, only four or five eſcaped with the melancholy news of the deſtruction of the reſt, who all periſhed by ſhipwreck. Shi-tſu reigned 15 years, died in the 80th year of his age, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon. The throne continued in the Ywen family till the year 1367, when Shunti, the laſt of that dynaſty, was driven out by a Chineſe named Chu. During this period the Tartars had become enervated by long proſperity; and the Chineſe had been roufed into valour by their ſubjection. Shunti, the reigning prince, was quite ſunk in ſloth and debauchery; and the empire, beſides, was oppreſſed by a wicked miniſter named Ama. In June 1355, Chu, a Chineſe of mean extraction, and head of a ſmall party, ſet out from How-chew, paſſed the Kyang, and took Tay-ping. He then aſſociated himſelf with ſome other malcontents, at the head of whom he reduced the town of Tu-chew. Soon after he made himſelf maſter of Nanking, having defeated the Moguls who came to its relief. In December 1356, he was able to raiſe 100,000 men, at the head of whom he took the city of U-chew; and here, aſſembling his generals, it was reſolved neither to commit ſlaughters nor to plunder. The moſt formidable enemy he had to deal with was Chen-yew-lyang, ſtyled "Emperor of the Han." This man, being grieved

at the progreſs made by Chu, equipped a fleet, and raiſed a formidable army, in order to reduce Nan-chang-fu, which his antagoniſt had made himſelf maſter of. The governor, however, found means to inform Chu of his danger; upon which that chief cauſed a fleet to be fitted out at Nan-king, in which he embarked 200,000 ſoldiers. As ſoon as Chen-yew-lyang was informed of his enemy's approach, he raiſed the ſiege of Nan-chang-fu, and gave orders for attacking Chu's naval force. An engagement enſued between a part of the fleets, in which Chu proved victorious; and next day, all the ſquadrons having joined in order to come to a general engagement, Chu gained a ſecond victory, and burnt one hundred of the enemy's veſſels. A third and fourth engagement happened, in both which Chu gained the victory; and in the laſt, Chen-yew-lyang himſelf was killed, his ſon taken priſoner, and his generals obliged to ſurrender themſelves with all their forces and veſſels.

In January 1364, Chu's generals propoſed to have him proclaimed emperor; but this he declined, and at firſt contented himſelf with the title of King of U. In February he made himſelf maſter of Vu-chang-fu, where, with his uſual humanity, he relieved thoſe in diſtreſs, encouraged the literati, and would allow his troops neither to plunder nor deſtroy. This wiſe conduct procured him an eaſy conqueſt both of Kyang-ſi and Hu-quang. The Chineſe ſubmitted to him in crowds, and profeſſed the greateſt veneration and reſpect for his perſon and government.

All this time Shun-ti, with an unaccountable negligence, never thought of exerting himſelf againſt Chu, but continued to employ his forces againſt the rebels who had taken up arms in various parts of the empire; ſo that Chu found himſelf in a condition to aſſume the title of emperor. This he choſe to do at Nan-king on the firſt day of the year 1368. After this his troops entered the province of Honan, which they preſently reduced. In the third month, Chu, who had now taken the title of *Hong-vu*, or *Tay-tſu*, reduced the fortreſs of Tong-quan; after which his troops entered Pecheli from Honan on the one ſide, and Shantong on the other. Here his generals defeated and killed one of Shun-ti's officers; after which they took the city of Tong-chew, and then prepared to attack the capital, from which they were now but twelve miles diſtant. On their approach the emperor fled with all his family beyond the great wall, and this put an end to the dynaſty of Ywen. In 1370 he died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, whom the ſucceſſor of Hong-vu drove beyond the Cobi, or Great Deſert, which ſeparates China from Tartary. They continued their incurſions, however, for many years; nor did they ceaſe their attempts till the year 1583, when vaſt numbers of them were cut to pieces by the Chineſe troops.

The 21ſt dynaſty of Chineſe emperors, founded in 1368 by Chu, continued till the year 1644, when they were again expelled by the Tartars. The laſt Chineſe emperor was named Whay-tſong, and aſcended the throne in 1628. He was a great lover of the ſciences, and a favourer of the Chriſtians, though much addicted to the ſuperſtition of the Bonzes. He found himſelf engaged in a war with the Tartars and a number of rebels in different provinces. In 1636, the Tartars and rebels compoſed four great armies commanded by as many generals; which, however, were ſoon reduced to two, commanded by Li and Chang. Theſe agreed to divide the empire between them; Chang taking the weſtern provinces, and Li the eaſtern ones. The latter ſeized on part of Shen-ſi, and then of Honan, whoſe capital, named Kay-fong-fu, he laid ſiege to, but was repulſed with loſs. He renewed it ſix months after, but without ſucceſs; the beſieged chooſing rather to feed on human fleſh than ſurrender. The imperial forces coming ſoon after to its aſſiſtance, the general made no doubt of being able to deſtroy the rebels at once, by breaking down the banks of the Yellow River; but unfortunately the rebels eſcaped to the mountains, while the city was quite overflowed, and three hundred thouſand of the inhabitants periſhed.

After this diſaſter, Li marched into the province of Shen-ſi and Honan; where

where he put to death all the mandarins, exacted great ſums from the officers in place, and ſhewed no favour to any but the populace, whom he freed from all taxes: by this means he drew ſo many to his intereſt, that he thought himſelf ſtrong enough to aſſume the title of emperor. He next advanced to the capital, which, though well garriſoned, was divided into factions. Li had taken care to introduce before-hand a number of his men in diſguiſe; and by theſe the gates were opened to him the third day after his arrival. He entered the city at the head of 300,000 men; while the emperor kept himſelf ſhut up in his palace, buſied only with his ſuperſtitions. It was not long, however, before he found himſelf betrayed: and, under the greateſt conſternation, made an effort to get out of the palace, attended by about 600 of his guards. He was ſtill more ſurpriſed to ſee himſelf treacherouſly abandoned by them, and deprived of all hopes of eſcaping the inſults of his ſubjects. Upon this, preferring death to the diſgrace of falling alive into their hands, he immediately retired with his empreſs, whom he tenderly loved, and the princeſs her daughter, into a private part of the garden. His grief was ſo great that he was not able to utter a word; but ſhe ſoon underſtood his meaning, and, after a few ſilent embraces, hanged herſelf on a tree in a ſilken ſtring. Her huſband ſtaid only to write theſe words on the border of his veſt: "I have been baſely deſerted by my ſubjects; do what you will with me, but ſpare my people." He then cut off the young princeſs's head with one ſtroke of his ſcymetar, and hanged himſelf on another tree, in the 17th year of his reign, and 36th of his age. His prime miniſter, queens, and eunuchs, followed his example; and thus ended the Chineſe monarchy, to give place to that of the Tartars, which took place in the year 1644, and hath continued undiſturbed ever ſince.

Thus we have given an account of the moſt memorable tranſactions in the Chineſe hiſtory. It remains in our next only to deſcribe the preſent ſtate of the empire and its inhabitants according to the beſt and lateſt accounts.

(To be continued.)

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

[*Continued from page* 10.]

WE have ſaid that the perception of beauty, combined with animal deſire, is the firſt inducement which a man can have to prefer one woman to another. It may be added, that elegance of figure, a placid maſculine countenance, with a perſon which indicates ſtrength and agility, are the qualities which firſt tend to attach any woman to a particular man. Beauty is defined, "That particular form, which is the moſt common of all particular forms to be met with in the ſame ſpecies of beings." Let us apply this definition to our own ſpecies, and try, by means of it, to aſcertain what conſtitutes the beauty of the human face. It is evident, that of countenances we find a number almoſt infinite of different forms, of which forms one only conſtitutes beauty, whilſt the reſt, however numerous, conſtitute what is not beauty, but deformity, or uglineſs. To an attentive obſerver however, it is evident, that of the numerous particular forms of uglineſs, there is not one which includes ſo many faces as are formed after that particular caſt which conſtitutes beauty. Every particular ſpecies of the animal as well as of the vegetable creation may be ſaid to have a fixed or determinate form, to which, as to a centre, nature is continually inclining. Or it may be compared to pendulums vibrating in different directions over one central point; and, as they all croſs the centre, though only one paſſes through any other point, ſo it will be found that perfect beauty is oftener produced by nature than deformity: we do not mean than deformity in general, but than any one kind and degree of deformity. To inſtance in a particular part of a human

a human feature; the line which forms the ridge of the nose is deemed beautiful when it is straight; but this is likewise the central form, which is oftener found than any one particular degree of concave, convex, or any other irregular form that shall be proposed. As we are then more accustomed to beauty than deformity, we may conclude that to be the reason why we approve and admire it, just as we approve fashions and dress for no other reason than that we are used to them. The same thing may be said of colour as of form; it is custom alone which determines our preference of the colour of the Europeans to that of the Ethiopians, and which makes them prefer their own colour to ours; so that, though habit and custom cannot be the cause of beauty, they are certainly the cause of our liking it.

That we do like it cannot be denied. Every one is conscious of a pleasing emotion when contemplating beauty either in man or woman; and, when that pleasure is combined with the gratification of the sensual appetite, it is obvious that the sum of enjoyment must be greatly increased. The perception of beauty, therefore, necessarily directs the energy of the sensual appetite to a particular object; but still this combination is a mere selfish feeling, which regards its object only as the best of many similar instruments of pleasure. Before it can deserve the name of love, it must be combined with esteem, which is never bestowed but upon moral character and internal worth; for let a woman be ever so beautiful, and of course ever so desirable as an instrument of sensual gratification, if she be not possessed of the virtues and disposition which are peculiar to her sex, she will inspire no man with a generous affection. With regard to the outlines, indeed, whether of internal disposition or of external form, men and women are the same; but nature, intending them for mates, has given them dispositions, which, though concordant, are, however, different, so as to produce together delicious harmony. The man, more robust, is fitted for severe labour and for field-exercises; the woman, more delicate, is fitted for sedentary occupations, and particularly for nursing children. The man, bold and vigorous, is qualified for being a protector; the woman, delicate and timid, requires protection. Hence it is that a man never admires a woman for possessing bodily strength or personal courage; and women always despise men who are destitute of them. The man, as a protector, is directed by nature to govern; the woman, conscious of inferiority, is disposed to obey. Their intellectual powers correspond to the destination of nature. Men have penetration and solid judgment to fit them for governing; women have understanding, to make an engaging figure under good government: a greater proportion would excite dangerous rivalship between the sexes, which nature has avoided by giving them different talents. Women have more imagination and sensibility than men, which make all their enjoyments more exquisite; at the same time they are better qualified to communicate enjoyment. Add another capital difference of disposition: the gentle and insinuating manners of the female sex tend to soften the roughness of the other sex; and, whenever women are indulged with any freedom, they polish sooner than men.

These are not the only particulars that distinguish the sexes. With respect to the ultimate end of love, it is the privilege of the male, as superior and protector, to make a choice; the female, preferred, has no privilege but barely to consent or to refuse. Whether this distinction be the immediate result of the originally different dispositions of the sexes, or only the effect of associations inevitably formed, may be questioned; but among all nations it is the practice for men to court, and for women to be courted: and, were the most beautiful woman on earth to invert this practice, she would forfeit the esteem, however, by her external grace she might excite the desire, of the man whom she addressed. The great moral virtues which may be comprehended under the general term integrity are all absolutely necessary to make either men or women estimable; but, to procure esteem to the female character, the

modesty

modeſty peculiar to their ſex is a very eſſential circumſtance. Nature hath provided them with it as a defence againſt the artful ſolicitations of the other ſex before marriage, and alſo as a ſupport of conjugal fidelity.

A woman, therefore, whoſe diſpoſitions are gentle, delicate, and rather timid than bold, who is poſſeſſed of a large ſhare of ſenſibility and modeſty, and whoſe manners are ſoft and inſinuating, muſt, upon moral principles, command the eſteem and benevolence of every individual of the other ſex who is poſſeſſed of ſound underſtanding; but if her perſon be deformed, or not ſuch as to excite ſome degree of animal deſire, ſhe will attract no man's love. In like manner, a man whoſe moral character is good, whoſe underſtanding is acute, and whoſe converſation is inſtructive, muſt command the eſteem of every ſenſible and virtuous woman; but if his figure be diſagreeable, his manners unpoliſhed, his habits ſlovenly, and above all, if he be deficient in PERSONAL COURAGE, he will hardly excite deſire in the female breaſt. It is only when the qualities which command eſteem are, in the ſame perſon, united with thoſe which excite deſire, that the individual ſo accompliſhed can be an object of love to one of the other ſex; but, when theſe qualities are thus united, each of them increaſes the other in the imagination of the lover. The beauty of his miſtreſs gives her, in his apprehenſion, a greater ſhare of gentleneſs, modeſty, and every thing which adorns the female character, than perhaps ſhe really poſſeſſes; whilſt his perſuaſion of her internal worth makes him, on the other hand, apprehend her beauty to be abſolutely unrivalled.

To this theory an objection readily offers itſelf, which it is incumbent upon us to obviate. Men and women ſometimes fall in love at firſt ſight, and very often before they have opportunities of forming a juſt eſtimate of each other's moral character. How is this circumſtance to be reconciled with the progreſſive generation of love? We anſwer, By an aſſociation of ideas which is formed upon principles of phyſiognomy. Every paſſion and habitual diſpoſition of mind gives a particular caſt to the countenance, and is apt to diſcover itſelf in ſome feature of the face. This we learn by experience; and in time, without any effort of our own, the idea of each particular caſt of countenance comes to be ſo cloſely aſſociated in our minds with the internal diſpoſition which it indicates, that the one can never afterwards be preſented to our view without inſtantly ſuggeſting the other to the imagination. Hence it is that every man, who has been accuſtomed to make obſervations, naturally forms to himſelf, from the features and lineaments of a ſtranger's face, ſome opinion of his character and fortune. We are no ſooner preſented to a perſon for the firſt time, than we are immediately impreſſed with the idea of a proud, a reſerved, an affable, or a good-natured, man; and, upon our going into a company of abſolute ſtrangers, our benevolence or averſion, our awe or contempt, riſes inſtantly towards particular perſons, before we have heard them ſpeak a word, or know ſo much as their names or deſignations. The ſame thing happens when we are preſented to the fair ſex. If a woman, ſeen for the firſt time, have that particular caſt of countenance and that expreſſion of features to which we have aſſociated notions of gentleneſs, modeſty, and other female virtues, ſhe inſtantly commands our eſteem; and, if ſhe have likewiſe ſo much beauty as to make her an object of particular deſire, eſteem and deſire become ſuddenly combined; and that combination conſtitutes the affection of love. Such, too, is the nature of all mental aſſociations, that each part of which they are compoſed adds ſtrength and vividneſs to the other parts; ſo that, in the preſent inſtance, deſire makes us imagine virtues in the woman which her countenance perhaps does not indicate; and the virtues which are there actually viſible make us apprehend her beauty more perfect than it is.

The affection thus generated is more or leſs pure, and will be more or leſs permanent, according as the one or the other part of which it is compounded predominates. Where deſire of poſſeſſion prevails over our eſteem of

the perſon and merits of the deſirable object, love loſes its benevolent character: the appetite for gratification becomes ungovernable, and tends violently to its end, regardleſs of the miſery that muſt follow. In that ſtate love is no longer a ſweet agreeable affection; it becomes a ſelfiſh painful paſſion, which, like hunger and thirſt, produceth no happineſs but in the inſtant of fruition; and, when fruition is over, diſguſt and averſion generally ſucceed to deſire. On the other hand, where eſteem, founded on a virtuous character and gentle manners, prevails over animal deſire, the lover would not for the world gratify his appetite at the expence of a lady's honour or peace of mind. He wiſhes, indeed, for enjoyment; and to him enjoyment is more exquiſite than to the mere ſenſual lover, becauſe it unites ſentiment with the gratification of ſenſe; at the ſame time that, ſo far from being ſucceeded by diſguſt or averſion, it increaſes his benevolence to the woman, whoſe character and manners he eſteems, and who has contributed ſo much to his pleaſure. Benevolence to an individual, having a general end, admits of acts without number, and is ſeldom fully accompliſhed. Hence mutual love, which is chiefly compoſed of eſteem and benevolence, can hardly be of a ſhorter duration than its objects. Frequent enjoyment endears ſuch lovers to each other, and makes conſtancy a pleaſure; and, when the days of ſenſual enjoyment are over, eſteem and benevolence will remain in the mind, making ſweet, even in old age, the ſociety of that pair, in whom are collected the affections of huſband, wife, lover, friend, the tendereſt affections of human nature.

From the whole of this inveſtigation we think it appears, that the affection between the ſexes which deſerves the name of love is inſeparably connected with virtue and delicacy; that a man of modern gallantry cannot be a faithful or a generous lover; that, in the breaſt of him who has ranged from woman to woman for the mere gratification of his ſenſual appetite, deſire muſt have effaced all eſteem for the female character; and that, therefore, the maxim too generally received, "that a reformed rake makes the beſt huſband," has very ſeldom a chance to be true. We think it may likewiſe be inferred, that thouſands fancy themſelves in love who know not what love is, or how it is generated in the human breaſt: and therefore we beg leave to adviſe ſuch of our readers as may imagine themſelves to be in that ſtate to examine their own minds, with a view to diſcover, whether, if the objects of their love were old or ugly, they would ſtill eſteem them for the virtues of their character, and the propriety of their manners. This is a queſtion which deſerves to be well weighed by the young and the amourous, who, in forming the matrimonial connection, are too often blindly impelled by mere animal deſire, inflamed by beauty. It may indeed happen, after the pleaſure of gratifying that deſire is gone (and, if not refined by eſteem and benevolence, go it muſt with a ſwift pace), that a new bond of attachment may be formed upon more dignified and laſting principles; but this is a dangerous experiment. Even ſuppoſing good ſenſe, good temper, and internal worth of every ſort, yet a new attachment upon ſuch qualifications is rarely formed; becauſe it commonly, or rather always, happens, that ſuch qualifications, the only ſolid foundation of an indiſſoluble connection, if they did not originally make eſteem predominate over animal deſire, are afterwards rendered altogether inviſible by ſatiety of enjoyment creating diſguſt, which is generally the caſe with violent love formed on the deſire of enjoyment only.

Violent love without affection is finely exemplified in the following ſtory. When Conſtantinople was taken by the Turks, Irene, a young Greek of an illuſtrious family, fell into the hands of Mahomet II. who was at that time in the prime of youth and glory. His ſavage heart being ſubdued by her charms, he ſhut himſelf up with her, denying acceſs even to his miniſters. Love obtained ſuch aſcendancy, as to make him frequently abandon the army and fly to his Irene. War relaxed, for victory was no longer the monarch's favourite paſſion. The ſoldiers, accuſtomed

cuſtomed to booty, began to murmur, and the infection ſpread even among the commanders. The Baſha Muſtapha, conſulting the fidelity he owned his maſter, was the firſt who durſt acquaint him of the diſcourſes held publicly to the prejudice of his glory. The ſultan, after a gloomy ſilence, formed his reſolution. He ordered Muſtapha to aſſemble the troops next morning; and then with precipitation retired to Irene's apartment. Never before did that princeſs appear ſo charming; never before did the prince beſtow ſo many warm careſſes. To give a new luſtre to her beauty, he exhorted her women next morning to beſtow their utmoſt art and care on her dreſs. He took her by the hand, led her into the middle of the army, and, pulling off her veil, demanded of the baſhas, with a fierce look, whether they had ever beheld ſuch a beauty? After an awful pauſe, Mahomet, with one hand laying hold of the young Greek by her beautiful locks, and with the other pulling out his ſcymetar, ſevered her head from her body at one ſtroke. Then, turning to his grandees, with eyes wild and furious, "This ſword," ſays he, "when it is my will, knows to cut the bands of love."

(To be continued.)

THE DISABLED SOLDIER.

ACCIDENTALLY meeting, ſome days ago, a poor fellow, whom, I knew when a boy, dreſſed in a ſailor's jacket, and begging at one of the outlets of the town, with a wooden leg, I was curious to learn what had reduced him to his preſent ſituation. Wherefore, after having given him what I thought proper, I deſired to know the hiſtory of his life and misfortunes, and the manner in which he was reduced to his preſent diſtreſs. The diſabled ſoldier, for ſuch he was, though dreſſed in a ſailor's habit, ſcratching his head, and leaning on his crutch, put himſelf into an attitude to comply with my requeſt, and gave me his hiſtory as follows:

"As for my misfortunes, maſter, I can't pretend to have gone through any more than other folks; for, except the loſs of my limb, and my being obliged to beg, I don't know any reaſon, thank Heaven, that I have to complain; there is Bill Tibbs, of our regiment, he has loſt both his legs, and an eye to boot; but, thank Heaven, it is not ſo bad with me yet.

"I was born in Shropſhire; my father was a labourer, and died when I was five years old; ſo I was put upon the pariſh. As he had been a wandering ſort of a man, the pariſhioners were not able to tell to what pariſh I belonged, or where I was born, ſo they ſent me to another pariſh, and that pariſh ſent me to a third. I thought in my heart, they kept ſending me about ſo long, that they would not let me be born in any pariſh at all; but at laſt, however, they fixed me. I had ſome diſpoſition to be a ſcholar, and was reſolved, at leaſt, to know my letters; but the maſter of the workhouſe put me to buſineſs as ſoon as I was able to handle a mallet; and here I lived an eaſy kind of life for five years. I only wrought ten hours in the day, and had my meat and drink provided for my labour. It is true, I was not ſuffered to ſtir out of the houſe, for fear, as they ſaid, I ſhould run away; but what of that? I had the liberty of the whole houſe, and the yard before the door, and that was enough for me. I was then bound out to a farmer, where I was up both early and late; but I ate and drank well, and liked my buſineſs well enough, till he died, when I was obliged to provide for myſelf; ſo I was reſolved to go ſeek my fortune.

"In this manner I went from town to town, worked when I could get employment, and ſtarved when I could get none: when, happening one day to go through a field belonging to a juſtice of peace, I ſpy'd a hare croſſing the path juſt before me; and, I believe, the devil put it in my head to fling my ſtick at it:—well, what will you have on't? I killed the hare, and was bringing it away, when the juſtice himſelf met me; he called me a poacher and a villain; and, collaring me, deſired I would give an account of myſelf.

myſelf. I fell upon my knees, begged his worſhip's pardon, and began to give a full account of all that I knew of my breed, ſeed, and generation; but, though I gave a very true account, the juſtice ſaid I could give no account; ſo I was indicted at the ſeſſions, found guilty of being poor, and ſent up to London, to Newgate, in order to be tranſported as a vagabond.

"People may ſay this and that of being in jail, but for my part I found Newgate as agreeable a place as ever I was in in all my life. I had my belly-full to eat and drink, and did no work at all. This kind of life was too good to laſt for ever; ſo I was taken out of priſon after five months, put on-board a ſhip, and ſent off, with two hundred more, to the plantations. We had but an indifferent paſſage, for, being all confined in the hold, more than a hundred of our people died for want of ſweet air; and thoſe that remained were ſickly enough, God knows. When we came a-ſhore, we were ſold to the planters, and I was bound for ſeven years more. As I was no ſcholar, (for I did not know my letters,) I was obliged to work among the negroes; and I ſerved out my time, as in duty bound to do.

"When my time was expired, I worked my paſſage home, and glad I was to ſee Old England again, becauſe I loved my country. I was afraid, however, that I ſhould be indicted for a vagabond once more, ſo I did not much care to go down into the country, but kept about the town, and did little jobs when I could get them.

"I was very happy in this manner for ſome time, till one evening, coming home from work, two men knocked me down, and then deſired me to ſtand. They belonged to a preſs-gang: I was carried before a juſtice, and, as I could give no account of myſelf, I had my choice left, whether to go on-board a man of war or liſt for a ſoldier; I choſe the latter; and, in this poſt of a gentleman, I ſerved two campaigns in Flanders, was at the battles of Val and Fontenoy, and received but one wound, through the breaſt here; but the doctor of our regiment ſoon made me well again.

"When the peace came on I was diſcharged; and, as I could not work, becauſe my wound was ſometimes troubleſome, I liſted for a landman in the Eaſt-India company's ſervice. I have fought the French in ſix pitched battles; and I verily believe that, if I could read or write, our captain would have made me a corporal. But it was not my good fortune to have any promotion, for I ſoon fell ſick, and ſo got leave to return home again with forty pounds in my pocket. This was at the beginning of the preſent war, and I hoped to be ſet on-ſhore, and to have the pleaſure of ſpending my money; but the government wanted men, and ſo I was preſſed for a ſailor, before ever I could ſet foot on-ſhore.

"The boatſwain found me, as he ſaid, an obſtinate fellow: he ſwore he knew that I underſtood my buſineſs well, but that I ſhammed Abraham, to be idle; but God knows, I knew nothing of ſea-buſineſs, and he beat me without conſidering what he was about. I had ſtill, however, my forty pounds, and that was ſome comfort to me under every beating; and the money I might have had to this day, but that our ſhip was taken by the French, and ſo I loſt all.

"Our crew was carried into Breſt, and many of them died, becauſe they were not uſed to live in a jail; but, for my part, it was nothing to me, for I was ſeaſoned. One night as I was aſleep on the bed of boards, with a warm blanket about me, (for I always loved to lie well,) I was awakened by the boatſwain, who had a dark lantern in his hand: 'Jack,' ſays he to me, "will you knock out the French centry's brains?' 'I dont care,' ſays I, ſtriving to keep myſelf awake, 'if I lend a hand.' 'Then follow me,' ſays he, 'and I hope we ſhall do his buſineſs.' So up I got and tied my blanket, which was all the clothes I had, about my middle, and went with him to fight the Frenchmen. I hate the French, becauſe they are all ſlaves, and wear wooden ſhoes.

"Though we had no arms, one Engliſhman is able to beat five French at any time; ſo we went down to the door, where both the centries were poſted,

poſted, and, ruſhing upon them, ſeized their arms in a moment, and knocked them down. From thence nine of us ran together to the quay, and, ſeizing the firſt boat we met, got out of the harbour, and put to ſea. We had not been here three days before we were taken up by the Dorſet privateer, who was glad of ſo many good hands, and we conſented to run our chance. However, we had not as much luck as we expected. In three days we fell in with the Pompadour privateer of forty guns, while we had but twenty-three; ſo to it we went, yard-arm and yard-arm. The fight laſted for three hours, and I verily believe we ſhould have taken the Frenchman, had we had but ſome more men left behind; but, unfortunately, we loſt all our men juſt as we were going to get the victory.

"I was once more in the power of the French, and I believe it would have gone hard with me had I been brought back to Breſt; but, by good fortune, we were re-taken by the Viper. I had almoſt forgot to tell you that, in that engagement, I was wounded in two places; I loſt four fingers off the left hand, and my leg was ſhot off. If I had had the good fortune to have loſt my leg and uſe of my hand on-board a king's ſhip, and not a-board a privateer, I ſhould have been entitled to clothing and maintenance during the reſt of my life! but that was not my chance: one man is born with a ſilver ſpoon in his mouth, and another with a wooden ladle. However, bleſſed be God, I enjoy good health, and will for ever love liberty and Old England. Liberty, property, and Old England, for ever, huzza!"

Thus ſaying, he haſtily limped off to importune the charity of a faſhionable groupe on the oppoſite ſide of the way, leaving me in admiration at his intrepidity and content; nor could I avoid acknowledging, that an habitual acquaintance with miſery ſerves better than philoſophy to teach us to deſpiſe it.

LIBERTY, THE BIRTH-RIGHT OF BRITONS.

THE abſolute rights of man, conſidered as a free agent, endowed with diſcernment to know good from evil, and with power of chooſing thoſe meaſures which appear to him to be moſt deſirable, are uſually ſummed up in one general appellation, and denominated the *natural liberty of mankind*. This natural liberty conſiſts properly in a power of acting as one thinks fit, without any reſtraint or controul, unleſs by the law of nature; being a right inherent in us by birth, and one of the gifts of God to man at his creation, when he endued him with the faculty of free will. But every man, when he enters into ſociety, gives up a part of his natural liberty as the price of ſo valuable a purchaſe; and, in conſideration of receiving the advantages of mutual commerce, obliges himſelf to conform to thoſe laws which the community has thought proper to eſtabliſh. And this ſpecies of legal obedience and conformity is infinitely more deſirable than that wild and ſavage liberty which is ſacrificed to obtain it. For no man, that conſiders a moment, would wiſh to obtain the abſolute and uncontrouled power of doing whatever he pleaſes: the conſequence of which is, that every other man would alſo have the ſame power; and then there would be no ſecurity to individuals in any of the enjoyments of life.

Political, therefore, or *civil*, liberty, which is that of a member of ſociety, is no other than natural liberty ſo far reſtrained by human laws (and no farther) as is neceſſary and expedient for the general advantage of the public. Hence we may collect, that the law, which reſtrains a man from doing miſchief to his fellow citizens, though it diminiſhes the natural, increaſes the civil, liberty of mankind; but every wanton and careleſs reſtraint of the will of the ſubject, whether practiſed by a monarch, or a nobility, or a popular aſſembly, is a degree of tyranny. Nay, that even laws themſelves, whether made with or without our conſent, if they regulate and conſtrain our conduct in matters of mere indifference, without any good end in view, are laws deſtructive of liberty; whereas, if any public advantage can ariſe

ariſe from obſerving ſuch precepts, the controul of our private inclinations, in one or two particular points will conduce to preſerve our general freedom in others of more importance, by ſupporting that ſtate of ſociety which alone can ſecure our independence. Thus, the ſtatute of King Edward IV. which forbade the fine gentlemen of thoſe times (under the degree of a lord) to wear pikes upon their ſhoes or boots of more than two inches in length, was a law that favoured of oppreſſion; becauſe, however ridiculous the faſhion then in uſe might appear, the reſtraining it by pecuniary penalties could ſerve no purpoſe of common utility. But the ſtatute of King Charles II. which preſcribes a thing ſeemingly as indifferent, viz. a dreſs for the dead, who were all ordered to be buried in woollen, is a law conſiſtent with public liberty; for it encourages the ſtaple trade, on which in a great meaſure depends the univerſal good of the nation. So that laws, when prudently framed, are by no means ſubverſive, but rather introductive, of liberty; for (as Mr. Locke has well obſerved) where there is no law there is no freedom. But then, on the other hand, that conſtitution or frame of government, that ſyſtem of laws, is alone calculated to maintain civil liberty, which leaves the ſubject entire maſter of his own conduct, except in thoſe points wherein the public good requires ſome direction or reſtraint.

The idea and practice of this political or civil liberty flouriſh in their higheſt vigour in theſe kingdoms, where it falls little ſhort of perfection, and can only be loſt or deſtroyed by the folly or demerits of its owner; the legiſlature, and of courſe the laws, of Britain, being peculiarly adapted to the preſervation of this ineſtimable bleſſing even in the meaneſt ſubject. Very different from the modern conſtitutions of other ſtates on the continent of Europe, and from the genius of the imperial law; which in general are calculated to veſt an arbitrary and deſpotic power, of controuling the actions of the ſubject, in the prince, or in a few grandees. And this ſpirit of liberty is ſo deeply implanted in our conſtitution, and rooted even in our very ſoil, that a ſlave or a negro, the moment he lands in Britain, falls under the protection of the laws, and ſo far becomes a freeman; though the maſter's right to his ſervice may poſſibly ſtill continue.

The abſolute rights of every Briton (which, taken in a political and extenſive ſenſe, are uſually called their *liberties*), as they are founded on nature and reaſon, ſo they are coeval with our form of government; though ſubject at times to fluctuate and change, their eſtabliſhment, excellent as it is, being ſtill human. At ſome times we have ſeen them depreſſed by overbearing and tyrannical princes; at others, ſo luxuriant as even to tend to anarchy, a worſe ſtate than tyranny itſelf, as any government is better than none at all. But the vigour of our free conſtitution, when violently oppreſſed, or too much weighed down, has always delivered the nation from theſe embarraſſments: and, as ſoon as the convulſions conſequent on the ſtruggle have been over, the balance of our rights and liberties has ſettled to its proper level; and their fundamental articles have been from time to time aſſerted in parliament, as often as they were thought to be in danger.

Firſt, by the great charter of liberties, which was obtained, ſword in hand, from King John, and afterwards, with ſome alterations, confirmed in parliament by King Henry III. his ſon. Which charter contained very few new grants; but, as Sir Edward Coke obſerves, was for the moſt part declaratory of the principal grounds of the fundamental laws of England. Afterwards, by the ſtatute called *confirmatio cartarum*, whereby the great charter is directed to be allowed as the common law, all judgments contrary to it are declared to be void; copies of it are ordered to be ſent to all cathedral churches, and read twice a year to the people; and ſentence of excommunication is directed to be as conſtantly denounced againſt all thoſe that by word, deed, or counſel, act contrary thereto, or in any degree infringe it. Next, by a multitude

multitude of ſubſequent corroborating ſtatutes (Sir Edward Coke reckons 32), from the firſt Edward to Henry IV. Then, after a long interval, by the petition of right; which was a parliamentary declaration of the liberties of the people, aſſented to by King Charles I. in the beginning of his reign. Which was cloſely followed by the ſtill more ample conceſſions made by that unhappy prince to his parliament, before the fatal rupture between them; and by the many ſalutary laws, particularly the habeas corpus act, paſſed under Charles II. To theſe ſucceeded the bill of rights, or declaration delivered by the lords and commons to the Prince and Princeſs of Orange, on the 13th of February 1688; and afterwards enacted in parliament, when they became king and queen: which declaration concludes in theſe remarkable words: "And they do claim, demand, and inſiſt upon, all and ſingular the premiſes, as their undoubted rights and liberties." And the act of parliament itſelf recogniſes "all and ſingular the rights and liberties aſſerted and claimed in the ſaid declaration to be the true, ancient, and indubitable, rights of the people of this kingdom." Laſtly, theſe liberties were again aſſerted at the commencement of the preſent century, in the act of ſettlement, whereby the crown was limited to his preſent majeſty's illuſtrious houſe: and ſome new proviſions were added at the ſame fortunate era, for better ſecuring our religion, laws, and liberties; which the ſtatute declares to be "the birthright of the people of England," according to the ancient doctrine of the common law.

Thus much for the declaration of our rights and liberties. The rights themſelves, thus defined by theſe ſeveral ſtatutes, conſiſt in a number of private immunities; which will appear, from what has been premiſed, to be indeed no other, than either that *reſiduum* of natural liberty, which is not required by the laws of ſociety to be ſacrificed to public convenience; or elſe thoſe civil privileges, which ſociety hath engaged to provide, in lieu of the natural liberties ſo given up by individuals. Theſe therefore were formerly, either by inheritance or purchaſe, th right of all mankind; but, in moſt other countries of the world, being now more or leſs debaſed and deſtroyed, they at preſent may be ſaid to remain, in a peculiar and emphatical manner, the rights of the people of Britain. And theſe may be reduced to three principal or primary articles; the right of perſonal ſecurity, the right of perſonal liberty, and the right of private property: becauſe, as there is no other known method of compulſion, or of abridging man's natural free-will, but by an infringement or diminution of one or other of theſe important rights, the preſervation of theſe inviolate may juſtly be ſaid to include the preſervation of our civil immunities in their largeſt and moſt extenſive ſenſe.

In vain, however would theſe rights be declared, aſcertained, and protected, by the dead letter of the laws, if the conſtitution had provided no other method to ſecure their actual enjoyment. It has therefore eſtabliſhed certain other auxiliary ſubordinate rights of the ſubject, which ſerve principally as barriers to protect and maintain inviolate the three great and primary rights of perſonal ſecurity, perſonal liberty, and private property. Theſe are,

1. The conſtitution, powers, and privileges, of parliament.

2. The limitation of the king's prerogative, by bounds ſo certain and notorious, that it is impoſſible he ſhould exceed them without the conſent of the people. The former of theſe keeps the legiſlative power in due health and vigour, ſo as to make it improbable that laws ſhould be enacted deſtructive of general liberty; the latter is a guard upon the executive power, by reſtraining it from acting either beyond or in contradiction to the laws that are framed and eſtabliſhed by the other.

3. A third ſubordinate right of every Briton is that of applying to the courts of juſtice for redreſs of injuries. Since the law is, in this realm, the ſupreme arbiter of every man's life, liberty, and property, courts of juſtice muſt at all times be open to the ſubject; and the law be duly adminiſtered therein. The emphatical words of *magna charta*, ſpoken in the perſon of the king, who in judgment of law (ſays Sir Edward Coke) is ever preſent, and repeating them

them in all his courts, are theſe: *Nulli vendemus, nulli negabimus, aut differemus rectum vel juſtitiam*; "and therefore every ſubject (continues the ſame learned author), for injury done to him *in bonis, in terris, vel perſona*, by any other ſubject, be he eccleſiaſtical or temporal, without any exception, may take his remedy by the courſe of the law, and have juſtice and right for the injury done to him, freely without ſale, fully without any denial, and ſpeedily without delay". It were endleſs to enumerate all the affirmative acts of parliament, wherein juſtice is directed to be done according to the law of the land: and what that law is, every ſubject knows, or may know if he pleaſes: for it depends not upon the arbitrary will of any judge; but is permament, fixed, and unchangeable, unleſs by authority of parliament. We ſhall however juſt mention a few negative ſtatutes, whereby abuſes, perverſions, or delays, of juſtice, eſpecially by the prerogative, are reſtrained. It is ordained by magna charta, that no freeman ſhall be outlawed, that is, put out of the protection and benefit of the laws, but according to the law of the land. By 2 Edw. III. c. 8. and 11 Rich. II. c. 10. it is enacted, that no commands or letters ſhall be ſent under the great ſeal, or the little ſeal, the ſignet or privy ſeal, in diſturbance of the law; or to diſturb or delay common right: and, though ſuch commandments ſhould come, the judges ſhall not ceaſe to do right: which is alſo made a part of their oath by ſtatute 18 Edw. III. ſt. 4. And by 1 Wm. and Mary, ſt. 2. c. 2. it is declared, that the pretended power of ſuſpending or diſpenſing with laws, or the execution of laws, by regal authority, without conſent of parliament, is illegal.

Not only the ſubſtantial part, or judicial deciſions, of the law, but alſo the formal part, or method of proceeding, cannot be altered but by parliament: for, if once thoſe outworks were demoliſhed, there would be an inlet to all manner of innovation in the body of the law itſelf. The king, it is true, may erect new courts of juſtice; but then they muſt proceed according to the old eſtabliſhed forms of the common law. For which reaſon it is declared in the ſtatute 16 Car. I. c. 10. upon the diſſolution of the court of ſtar-chamber, that neither his majeſty nor his privy council have any juriſdiction, power, or authority, by Engliſh bill, petition, articles, libel, (which were the courſe of proceeding in the ſtar-chamber, borrowed from the civil law,) or by any other arbitrary way whatſoever, to examine, or draw into queſtion, determine, or diſpoſe of, the lands or goods of any of the ſubjects of this kingdom: but that the ſame ought to be tried and determined in the ordinary courts of juſtice, and by courſe of law.

4. If there ſhould happen any uncommon injury, or infringment of the rights before-mentioned, which the ordinary courſe of law is too defective to reach, there ſtill remains a fourth ſubordinate right, appertaining to every individual, namely, the right of petitioning the king, or either houſe of parliament, for the redreſs of grievances. In Ruſſia, we are told, that Czar Peter eſtabliſhed a law, that no ſubject might petition the throne, till he had firſt petitioned two different miniſters of ſtate. In caſe he obtained juſtice from neither, he might then preſent a third petition to the prince; but upon pain of death if found to be in the wrong. The conſequence of which was, that no one dared to offer ſuch third petition; and, grievances ſeldom falling under the notice of the ſovereign, he had little opportunity to redreſs them. The reſtrictions, for ſome there are, which are laid upon petitioning in Britain, are of a nature extremely different; and, while they promote the ſpirit of peace, they are no check upon that of liberty. Care only muſt be taken, leſt, under the pretence of petitioning, the ſubject be guilty of any riot or tumult; as happened in the opening of the memorable parliament in 1640; and, to prevent this, it is provided by the ſtatute 13 Car. II. ſtat. 1. cap. 5. that no petition to the king, or either houſe of parliament, for any alteration in church or ſtate, ſhall be ſigned by above 20 perſons, unleſs the matter

matter thereof be approved by three juſtices of the peace, or the major part of the grand jury, in the country; and in London by the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common council; nor ſhall any petition be preſented by more than ten perſons at a time. But, under theſe regulations, it is declared by the ſtatute 1 W. & M. ſt. 2. c. 2. that the ſubject hath a right to petition; and that all commitments and proſecutions for ſuch petitioning are illegal.

5. The fifth and laſt auxiliary right of the ſubject, that we ſhall at preſent mention, is that of having arms for their defence, ſuitable to their condition and degree, and ſuch as are allowed by law. Which is alſo declared by the ſame ſtatute 1 W. & M. ſt. 2. c. 2. and is indeed a public allowance, under due reſtrictions, of the natural right of reſiſtance and ſelf-preſervation, when the ſanctions of ſociety and laws are found inſufficient to reſtrain the violence of oppreſſion.

In theſe ſeveral articles conſiſt the rights, or, as they are frequently termed, the liberties, of Britons: liberties more generally talked of than thoroughly underſtood; yet highly neceſſary to be perfectly known and conſidered by every man of rank or property, leſt his ignorance of the points whereon they are founded ſhould hurry him into faction and licentiouſneſs on the one hand, or a puſillanimous indifference and criminal ſubmiſſion on the other. And we have ſeen that theſe rights conſiſt, primarily, in the free enjoyment of perſonal ſecurity, of perſonal liberty, and of private property. So long as theſe remain inviolate, the ſubject is perfectly free; for every ſpecies of compulſive tyranny and oppreſſion muſt act in oppoſition to one or other of theſe rights, having no other object upon which it can be employed. To preſerve theſe from violation it is neceſſary that the conſtitution of parliaments be ſupported in its full vigour; and limits, certainly known, be ſet to the royal prerogative. And, laſtly, to vindicate theſe rights, when actually violated or attacked, the ſubjects of Britain are entitled, in the firſt place, to the regular adminiſtration and free courſe of juſtice in the courts of law; next, to the right of petitioning the king and parliament for redreſs of grievances, and, laſtly, to the right of having and uſing arms for ſelf-preſervation and defence. And all theſe rights and liberties it is our birthright to enjoy entire; unleſs where the laws of our country have laid them under neceſſary reſtraints. Reſtraints in themſelves ſo gentle and moderate, as will appear, upon farther inquiry, that no man of ſenſe or probity would wiſh to ſee ſlackened. For all of us have it in our choice to do every thing that a good man would deſire to do; and are reſtrained from nothing but what would be pernicious either to ourſelves or to our fellow-citizens. So that this review of our ſituation may fully juſtify the obſervation of a learned French author, who indeed generally both thought and wrote in the ſpirit of genuine freedom; and who hath not ſcrupled to profeſs, even in the very boſom of his native country, that the Britiſh is the only nation in the world where political or civil liberty is the direct end of its conſtitution. Recommending therefore to the ſtudent in our laws a farther and more accurate ſearch into this extenſive and important title, we ſhall cloſe our remarks upon it with the expiring wiſh of the famous Father Paul to his country, "ESTO PERPETUA."

STORY of HAMLET.

HAMLET was a prince celebrated in the annals of Denmark, whoſe name has been rendered familiar in this country, and his ſtory intereſting, by being the ſubject of one of the nobleſt tragedies of our immortal Shakeſpeare.—Adjoining to a royal palace which ſtands about half a mile from that of Cronborg in Elſineur, is a garden, which is called Hamlet's Garden, and is ſaid by tradition to be the very ſpot where the murder of his father was perpetrated. The houſe is of modern date, and is ſituated at the foot of a ſandy ridge near the ſea. The garden occupies the ſide of the hill, and is laid out in terraces riſing one above another. Elſineur is the ſcene of Shake-

ſpeare's Hamlet; and the original hiſtory from which our poet derived the principal incidents of his play is founded upon facts, but ſo deeply buried in remote antiquity that it is difficult to diſcriminate truth from fable. Saxo-Grammaticus, who flouriſhed in the 12th century, is the earlieſt hiſtorian of Denmark that relates the adventures of Hamlet. His account is extracted, and much altered, by Belleforeſt, a French author; an Engliſh tranſlation of whoſe romance was publiſhed under the title of the Hiſtorye of Hamblet; and from this tranſlation Shakeſpeare formed the ground-work of his play, though with many alterations and additions. The following ſhort ſketch of Hamlet's hiſtory, as recorded in the Daniſh annals, will enable the reader to compare the original character with that delineated by Shakeſpeare.

Long before the introduction of Chriſtianity into Denmark, Horwendillus, prefect or king of Jutland, was married to Geruthra, or Gertrude, daughter of Ruric, king of Denmark, by whom he had a ſon called Amlettus, or Hamlet. Fengo murders his brother Horwendillus, marries Gertrude, and aſcends the throne. Hamlet, to avoid his uncle's jealouſy, counterfeits folly; and is repreſented as ſuch an abhorrer of falſehood, that though he conſtantly frames the moſt evaſive and abſurd anſwers, yet artfully contrives never to deviate from truth. Fengo, ſuſpecting the reality of his madneſs, endeavours by various methods to diſcover the real ſtate of his mind: amongſt others, he departs from Elſineur; concerts a meeting between Hamlet and Gertrude, concluding that the former would not conceal his ſentiments from his own mother; and orders a courtier to conceal himſelf, unknown to both, for the purpoſe of overhearing their converſation. The courtier repairs to the queen's apartment, and hides himſelf under a heap of ſtraw, which in thoſe days was ſpread on floors as a luxury, as carpets are now. Hamlet, upon entering the cabinet, ſuſpecting the preſence of ſome ſpy, imitates, after his uſual affectation of folly, the crow of a cock, and, ſhaking his arms like wings, jumps upon the heap of ſtraw; till, feeling the courtier, he draws his ſword, and inſtantly diſpatches him. He then cuts the body to pieces, boils it, and gives it to the hogs. He now avows to his mother that he only perſonated a fool, reproaches her for her inceſtuous marriage with the murderer of her huſband; and concludes his remonſtrances by ſaying, "Inſtead, therefore, of condoling my inſanity, deplore your own infamy, and learn to lament the deformity of your own mind."* The queen is ſilent, but is recalled to virtue by theſe admonitions. Fengo returns to Elſineur, ſends Hamlet to England under the care of two courtiers, and requeſts the king by a letter to put him to death. Hamlet diſcovers and alters

* The cloſet-ſcene, which is ſo beautiful in Shakeſpear's Hamlet, is thus concifely, but not leſs finely, deſcribed by the Daniſh hiſtorian: "Cumque mater magno ejulatu quæſta preſentis filii ſocordiam defiere cœpiſſet: 'Quid (inquit) mulierum turpiſſima graviſſimi criminis diſſimulationem falſo lamenti genere expetis, quæ ſcorti more laſciviens nefariam ac deteſtabilem thori conditionem ſecuta viri tui interfectorum pleno inceſti ſinu amplecteris: et ei qui prolis ſuæ parentem extinxerat obſcœniſſimis blandimentorum illecebris adularis. Ita nempe equæ conjugum ſuorum victoribus mariantur. Brutorum natura hæc eſt; ut in diverſa paſſim conjugia rapiantur: hoc tibi exemplo prioris mariti memorium exoleviſſe conſtat. Ego vero non ab re ſtolidi ſpecium gero, cum haud dubitem quin is qui fratrem oppreſſerit, in affines quoque pari crudelitate debacchaturus ſit: unde ſtoliditatis quæ induſtriæ habitum amplecti præſtat, et incoluminatus præſidium ab extrema delinamentorum ſpecie mutuari. In animo tamen paternæ ultionis ſtudium præſerverat; ſed rerum occaſiones aucupor, temporum opportunitates opperior. Non idem omnibus locus competit. Contra obſcurum immitemque animum altioribus ingenii modis uti convenit. Tibi vero ſupervacuum ſit meam lamentari diſipientiam, quæ tuam juſtius ignominiam deplorare debueras. Itaque non aliene fec propriæ mentis vitium deneus neceſſe eſt. Cætera ſilere memineris.' Tali convitio laceratam matrem ad excolendum virtutis habitum revocavit, præteritoſque ignes præſentibus illecebris præferre docuit."

the

the letter; ſo that, upon their arrival in England, the king orders the two courtiers to immediate execution, and betroths his daughter to Hamlet, who gives many aſtoniſhing proofs of a moſt tranſcendant underſtanding. At the end of the year he returns to Denmark, and alarms the court by his unexpected appearance; as a report of his death had been ſpread, and preparations were making for his funeral. Having re-aſſumed his affected inſanity, he purpoſely wounds his fingers in drawing his ſword, which the bye-ſtanders immediately faſten to the ſcabbard. He afterwards invites the principal nobles to an entertainment, makes them intoxicated, and in that ſtate covers them with a large curtain, which he faſtens to the ground with wooden pegs: he then ſets fire to the palace; and the nobles, being enveloped in the curtain, periſh in the flames. During this tranſaction he repairs to Fengo's apartment; and, taking the ſword which lay by the ſide of his bed, puts his own in its place: he inſtantly awakens and informs him, that Hamlet is come to revenge the murder of his father. Fengo ſtarts from his bed, ſeizes the ſword, but, being unable to draw it, falls by the hand of Hamlet. The next morning when the populace were aſſembled to view the ruins of the palace, Hamlet ſummons the remaining nobles; and in a maſterly ſpeech, which is too long to inſert in this place, lays open the motives of his own conduct, proves his uncle to have been the aſſaſſin of his father; and concludes in the following words: "Tread upon the aſhes of the monſter, who, polluting the wife of his murdered brother, joined inceſt to parricide; and ruled over you with the moſt oppreſſive tyranny. Receive me as the miniſter of a juſt revenge, as one who felt for the ſufferings of his father and his people. Conſider me as the perſon who has purged the diſgrace of his country; extinguiſhed the infamy of his mother; freed you from the deſpotiſm of a monſter, whoſe crimes, if he had lived, would have daily increaſed, and terminated in your deſtruction. Acknowledge my ſervices; and, if I have deſerved it, preſent me with the crown. Behold in me the author of theſe advantages: no degenerate perſon, no parricide; but the rightful ſucceſſor to the throne, and the pious avenger of a father's murder. I have reſcued you from ſlavery, reſtored you to liberty, and re-eſtabliſhed your glory: I have deſtroyed a tyrant, and triumphed over an aſſaſſin. The recompence is in your hands: you can eſtimate the value of my ſervices, and in your virtue I reſt my hopes of reward." This ſpeech had the deſired effect: the greater part of the aſſembly ſhed tears, and all who are preſent unanimouſly proclaim him king amid repeated acclamations.

Hamlet ſoon after his elevation ſails to England, and orders a ſhield to be made on which the principal actions of his life are repreſented. The king receives him with feigned demonſtrations of joy, falſely aſſures him that his daughter is dead, and recommends him to repair to Scotland as his ambaſſador, and to pay his addreſſes to the queen Hermetrude. He gives this inſidious advice with the hopes that Hamlet may periſh in the attempt; as the queen, who was remarkable for her chaſtity and cruelty, had ſuch an averſion to all propoſals of marriage, that not one of her ſuitors had eſcaped falling a ſacrifice to her vengeance. Hamlet, in oppoſition to all difficulties, performs the embaſſy; and, by the aſſiſtance of the ſhield, which inſpires the lady with a favourable opinion of his wiſdom and courage, obtains her in marriage, and returns with her to England. Informed by the princeſs to whom he had been betrothed that her father meditates his aſſaſſination, Hamlet avoids his fate by wearing armour under his robe; puts to death the King of England, and ſails to Denmark with his two wives, where he is ſoon afterwards killed in a combat with Vigletus, ſon of Ruric. Hamlet, adds the hiſtorian, was a prince, who, if his good fortune had been equal to his deſerts, would have rivalled the gods in ſplendor, and in his actions would have exceeded even the labours of Hercules.

THE TRIBUNAL OF CONSCIENCE.

CONSCIENCE is a ſecret arbiter of the ſoul, which gives its approbation to things that are naturally good, and condemns thoſe that are evil. A man of integrity will never liſten to any reaſon, or give way to any meaſure, or be miſled by any inducement, againſt conſcience.—The inhabitants of a great town offered Marſhal de Turenne 100,000 crowns, upon condition he would take another road, and not march his troops their way. He anſwered them, "As your town is not in the road I intended to march, I cannot accept the money you offer me."—The Earl of Derby, in the reign of Edward III. making a deſcent in Guienne, carried by ſtorm the town of Bergerac, and gave it up to be plundered. A Welch knight happened by chance to light upon the receiver's office. He found there ſuch a quantity of money that he thought himſelf obliged to acquaint his general with it, imagining that ſo great a booty naturally belonged to him. But he was agreeably ſurpriſed when the earl told him, with a pleaſant countenance, that he wiſhed him joy of his good fortune: and that he did not make the keeping of his word to depend upon the great or little value of the thing he had promiſed.—In the ſiege of Faliſci by Camillus general of the Romans, the ſchoolmaſter of the town, who had the children of the ſenators under his care, led them abroad under the pretext of recreation, and carried them to the Roman camp, ſaying to Camillus, that by this artifice he had delivered Faliſci into his hands. Camillus, abhorring this treachery, obſerved, "That there were laws for war as well as for peace; and that the Romans were taught to make war with integrity not leſs than with courage." He ordered the ſchoolmaſter to be ſtripped, his hands to be bound behind his back, and to be delivered to the boys to be laſhed back into the town. The Falerians, formerly obſtinate in reſiſtance, ſtruck with an act of juſtice ſo illuſtrious, delivered themſelves up to the Romans; convinced that they would be far better to have the Romans for their allies than their enemies.

It is a ſaying, That no man ever offended his own conſcience, but firſt or laſt it was revenged upon him. The power of conſcience indeed has been remarked in all ages, and the examples of it upon record are innumerable. The following is related by Mr. Fordyce, in his Dialogues on Education, as a real occurrence which happened in a neighbouring ſtate not many years ago. A jeweller, a man of good character and conſiderable wealth, having occaſion in the way of his buſineſs to travel at ſome diſtance from the place of his abode, took along with him a ſervant, in order to take care of his portmanteau. He had with him ſome of his beſt jewels, and a large ſum of money, to which his ſervant was likewiſe privy. The maſter having occaſion to diſmount on the road, the ſervant, watching his opportunity, took a piſtol from his maſter's ſaddle and ſhot him dead on the ſpot; then rifled him of his jewels and money, and, hanging a large ſtone to his neck, he threw him into the neareſt canal. With this booty he made off to a diſtant part of the country, where he had reaſon to believe that neither he nor his maſter were known. There he began to trade in a very low way at firſt, that his obſcurity might ſcreen him from obſervation, and in the courſe of a good many years ſeemed to riſe, by the natural progreſs of buſineſs, into wealth and conſideration; ſo that his good fortune appeared at once the effect and reward of induſtry and virtue. Of theſe he counterfeited the appearance ſo well, that he grew into great credit, married into a good family, and by laying out his hidden ſtores diſcreetly, as he ſaw occaſion, and joining to all an univerſal affability, he was admitted to a ſhare of the government of the town, and roſe, from one poſt to another, till at length he was choſen chief magiſtrate. In this office he maintained a fair character, and continued to fill it with no ſmall applauſe, both as a governor and a judge; till one day, as he ſat on the bench with ſome of his brethren, a criminal was brought before him who was accuſed of murdering his maſter. The evidence came out full,

full, the jury brought in their verdict that the priſoner was guilty, and the whole aſſembly waited the ſentence of the preſident of the court (which he happened to be on that day) with great ſuſpenſe. Meanwhile he appeared to be in unuſual diſorder and agitation of mind, and his colour changed often; at length he aroſe from his ſeat, and, coming down from the bench, placed himſelf juſt by the unfortunate man at the bar. "You ſee before you (ſaid he, addreſſing himſelf to thoſe who had ſat on the bench with him) a ſtriking inſtance of the juſt awards of heaven, which this day, after thirty years concealment, preſents to you a greater criminal that the man juſt now found guilty." Then he made an ample confeſſion of his guilt, and of all its aggravations: "Nor can I feel (continued he) any relief from the agonies of an awakened conſcience, but by requiring that juſtice be forthwith done againſt me in the moſt public and ſolemn manner." We may eaſily ſuppoſe the amazement of all the aſſembly, and eſpecially of his fellow-judges. However, they proceeded, upon this confeſſion, to paſs ſentence upon him, and he died with all the ſymptoms of a penitent mind.

ADVANTAGES OF FAIR DEALING.

IT may be thought odd to aſſert, that virtue is no enemy to a man's fortune in the preſent ſtate of things.—But if by fortune be meant a moderate or competent ſhare of wealth, power, or credit, not overgrown degrees of them, what ſhould hinder the virtuous man from obtaining that? He cannot cringe or fawn, it is true, but he can be civil and obliging as well as the knave; and ſurely his civility is more alluring, becauſe it has more manlineſs and grace in it than the mean adulation of the other: he cannot cheat or undermine; but he may be cautious, provident, watchful of occaſions, and equally prompt with the rogue in improving them: he ſcorns to proſtitute himſelf as a pander to the paſſions, or as a tool to the vices, of mankind; but he may have as ſound an underſtanding and as good capacities for promoting their real intereſts as the verieſt court-ſlave: and then he is more faithful and true to thoſe who employ him. In the common courſe of buſineſs, he has the ſame chances with the knave of acquiring a fortune, and riſing in the world. He may have equal abilities, equal induſtry, equal attention to buſineſs; and in other reſpects he has greatly the advantage of him. People love better to deal with him; they can truſt him more; they know he will not impoſe on them, nor take advantage of them, and can depend more on his word than on the oath or ſtrongeſt ſecurities of others. Whereas what is commonly called cunning, which is the offſpring of ignorance, and conſtant companion of knavery, is not only a mean-ſpirited but a very ſhort-ſighted talent, and a fundamental obſtacle in the road of buſineſs. It may procure indeed immediate and petty gains; but it is attended with dreadful abatements, which do more than overbalance them, both as it ſinks a man's credit when diſcovered, and cramps that largeneſs of mind which extends to the remoteſt as well as the neareſt intereſt, and takes in the moſt durable equally with the moſt tranſient gains. It is therefore eaſy to ſee how much a man's credit and reputation, and conſequently his ſucceſs, depend on his honeſty and virtue.

With regard to ſecurity and peace with his neighbours, it may be thought, perhaps, that the man of a quiet forgiving temper, and a flowing benevolence and courteſy, is much expoſed to injury and affronts from every proud or peeviſh mortal, who has the power or will to do miſchief. If we ſuppoſe, indeed, this quietneſs and gentleneſs of nature accompanied with cowardice and puſillanimity, this may often be the caſe; but in reality the good man is bold as a lion, and ſo much the bolder for being the calmer. Such a perſon will hardly be a butt to mankind. The ill-natured will be afraid to provoke him, and the good-natured will not incline to do it. Beſides, true virtue, which is conducted by reaſon, and exerted gracefully and without parade, is a moſt inſinuating and commanding thing; if it cannot diſarm

diſarm malice and reſentment at once, it will wear them out by degrees, and ſubdue them at length. How many have, by favours and prudently yielding, triumphed over an enemy, who would have been inflamed into tenfold rage by the fierceſt oppoſition. In fine, goodneſs is the moſt univerſally popular thing that can be.

To conclude; the good man may have ſome enemies, but he will have more friends: and, having given ſo many marks of private friendſhip or public virtue, he can hardly be deſtitute of a patron to protect or a ſanctuary to entertain him, or to protect or entertain his children when he is gone. Though he ſhould have little elſe to leave them, he bequeaths them the faireſt, and generally the moſt unenvied, inheritance of a good name, which like good ſeed ſown in the field of futurity, will often raiſe up unſolicited friends, and yield a benevolent harveſt of unexpected charities. But ſhould the fragrance of the parent's virtue prove offenſive to a perverſe or envious age, or even draw perſecution on the friendleſs orphans, there is one in heaven who will be more than a father to them, and recompenſe their parent's virtues by ſhowering bleſſings on them.

BATTLE OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE.

AIX-LA-CHAPELLE is a fine city of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia and duchy of Juliers. All authors are agreed about its antiquity, it being mentioned in Cæſar's Commentaries and the Annals of Tacitus. The Romans had colonies and fortreſſes here, when they were at war with the Germans; but the mineral waters and the hot bath ſo increaſed its fame, that, in proceſs of time, it was advanced to the privileges of a city, by the name of Aquægranii, that is, the waters of Granius; that which it has now of Aix-la-Chapelle, was given it by the French, to diſtinguiſh it from the other Aix. It is ſo called, on account of a chapel built in honour of the Holy Virgin by Charlemagne; who having repaired, beautified, and enlarged, the city, which was deſtroyed by the Huns in the reign of Attila in 451, made it the uſual place of his reſidence. The town is ſeated in a valley ſurrounded with mountains and woods, and yet the air is very wholeſome. It may be divided into the inward and the outward city. The inward is encompaſſed with a wall about three quarters of a league in circumference, having ten gates; and the outward wall, in which there are eleven gates, is about a league and a half in circumference. They have ſtone-quarries in the neighbourhood, which furniſh the inhabitants with proper materials for their magnificent buildings, of which the ſtadt-houſe and the cathedral are the chief. There are thirty parochial or collegiate churches. The market-place is very ſpacious, and the houſes round it are ſtately.

On the 2d of March, 1793, the allied army, commanded by the Prince de Cobourg, took poſſeſſion of this city, and gained a ſplendid and decided victory over the French. Early in the morning the Auſtrians poſſeſſed themſelves of the heights about Aix, from which they kept up an inceſſant fire; and at one o'clock a formal action took place in the town. The French formed themſelves into a ſquare in the market-place, but, upon the approach of the chaſſeurs of Badul, they began to give way; and, being at the ſame moment vigorouſly attacked on all ſides, a moſt dreadful carnage enſued. A French officer, well mounted, attempted to make his eſcape, in order to prevent a detachment of national guards, then marching to the ſpot, from falling into the hands of the allied army; but the bridle of his horſe was ſeized, he was ſhot thro' the body, and the detachment he meant to ſave were cut to pieces by the Pruſſians. The French fought with great bravery, and the numbers killed affords a ſtriking inſtance of the obſtinacy of the combat; 4000 French were left dead upon the ſpot, 1600 were made priſoners, and 22 pieces of cannon were taken. A view of this brilliant action, with an elegant portrait of the Prince de Cobourg, is given in this number; and particulars will be detailed more at length in the valuable Hiſtory hereto annexed, in which the cuts are to be placed.

SELECT POETRY.

ODE for his MAJESTY's BIRTH-DAY.

Written by HENRY JAMES PYE, Esq. Poet Laureat.

WHEN blind ambition drives his car
Impetuous thro' the ranks of war,
Tho' fame her notes of triumph breathe,
Tho' shouts of conquest soothe the ear,
Yet o'er the victor's blood-stain'd wreath
Reflection drops the pensive tear;
But at oppression's lawless head,
When war's vindictive bolts are sped,
When at the despot's shrinking breast,
When o'er sedition's haughty crest,
Stern battle shakes th'avenging spear,
And teaches headstrong arrogance to fear,
Mercy herself shall consecrate the cause,
While justice points the sword that indignation draws.

Though Albion many an ancient scar
Still bears on her indented breast,
In every age by Gallic war
Or Gallic perfidy impress'd,
Yet o'er their fields when rapine stood,
When factions drench'd their towns with blood,
No memory of insult past
Urg'd her to swell contention's blast;
With grief she view'd their sinking state,
With tears deplor'd her rival's fate;
Their chiefs, whose falchions yet were red
With her best blood in battle shed,
Found friendly refuge on her happy shore,
She knew they were distress'd, nor e'er remember'd more.

Yet, when invasion's raging flood
Burst dreadful o'er each ruin'd mound,
And, swell'd by carnage and by blood,
Threaten'd the trembling nations round;
While Europe from Batavia's wat'ry plain
By commerce snatch'd from ocean's wide domain,
To southern seas that gently lave
Baia's mild shores with tepid wave,
Look'd up, where on her rocky throne
Unaw'd Britannia sits alone,—
"Go forth, my sons, in freedom's cause!" she cried:—
Check'd was the torrent's course and refluent roll'd the tide.

What though on this auspicious day
Her offerings to the best of kings,
Pluck'd from the sober olive's spray,
The duteous muse no longer brings:—
Yet while the laurel's warrior bough
Now decks his youthful hero's brow,
Untouch'd by rapine's hand profane,
Unsoil'd by dark ambition's stain,
Albion once more with kindling flame
Renews her scenes of ancient fame,
Again she sees in fields of glory shine
Her sons of dauntless breast, her chiefs of royal line.

The TURKISH WARRIOR's FAREWELL to his MISTRESS.

ADIEU, sweet maid! the din of war
Calls Achmed from thy arms afar.
Inglorious sadness chills my heart;
'Tis death to stay, but worse to part.
Would rapid time but move more slow,
Or fortune one short hour bestow,
Within thy arms reclin'd at ease
Beneath the shade of cypress-trees,
I'd hang my sabre on the boughs,
And breathe once more my faithful vows.

I go to seek th'embattled plain:
Where horror leads her direful train.
The clashing sword, the brazen shield,
The shrieks that rend th'ensanguin'd field,
Succeed to thy sweet silver voice,
That made the mimic birds rejoice,
When, in thy arms reclin'd at ease
Beneath the shade of cypress-trees,
I hung my sabre on the boughs,
And breath'd to heav'n and thee my vows.

Already I endure the stings
That cruel absence ever brings,
As thirsty camels, doom'd to toil
O'er wild Arabia's burning soil,
If near some lonely brook they stray,
Are driven reluctantly away:
So, forc'd from thee by fate unkind,
I linger, stop, and look behind:
And still desire, reclin'd at ease
Beneath the shade of cypress-trees,
To hang my sabre on the boughs,
And breathe inviolable vows.

Yet, when the dreadful slaughter's o'er,
When bearded jav'lins hiss no more,
I'll quickly fly from fields of death,
To taste thy renovating breath,
To view thy ever-blooming charms,
To lodge within thy blissful arms,
And, bless'd with beauty, love, and ease,
Beneath the shade of cypress-trees,
To hang my sabre on the boughs,
And breathe my everlasting vows!

THE BRITISH OAK.

THE lofty oak from a small acorn grows,
And to the skies ascends with spreading boughs?
As years increase, it shades th'extended plain,
Then, big with death, and vengeance, plows the main.
Hence rises fame and safety to our shore,
And from an acorn springs Britannia's power.

FOREIGN NEWS.

LONDON GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY, *June* 2.

WHITEHALL, *June* 1, 1793.

CAPTAIN Maitland, of the 63d regiment, arrived this afternoon with a diſpatch from Major-general Cuyler to Mr. Dundas, of which the following is a copy.

HEAD-QUARTERS, TOBAGO, *April* 18, 1793.

SIR,

In my letter of the 4th inſt. I had the honour to acquaint you, that I then only waited for the arrival of Vice-admiral Sir John Laforey to carry into execution the contents of your letter of the 10th of February laſt.

Having previouſly ordered to be embarked the neceſſary artillery, ſtores, proviſions, and camp-equipage, on-board of ſome faſt-ſailing ſchooners hired for the purpoſe, I acquainted the admiral, upon his arrival at Barbadoes on the 10th inſt. at noon, that we were ready to proceed.

His majeſty's ſhips the Truſty of 50 guns, and Nautilus of 18, being equally ſo, the embarkation of the detachment of royal artillery, and of 9 companies of the 4th battalion of the 60th regiment, took place on the 11th inſt. Theſe, with the two flank companies of the 9th regiment, under the command of Major Baillie, which were brought from St. Kitt's by the admiral's ſhip, compoſed the whole of the force for the expedition, a return of which I have the honour herewith to encloſe to you. The Truſty, Nautilus, and Hind, ſchooners, being inſufficient for the reception of the troops, I accepted of the voluntary offer of Captain Spencer, of the merchant-ſhip Hero, to convey a part of the 4th battalion of the 60th regiment. The 12th of April we ſailed: the 14th inſtant, at one o'clock in the afternoon, we arrived in Great Courland-bay.—The neceſſary orders having been given for the diſembarkation and diſpoſition of the troops on landing, the whole was on-ſhore by three, together with twenty-five marines from the Truſty, commanded by Major Bright, which the admiral moſt readily granted upon my application.

We immediately advanced within ſight of the enemy's fort, whence I ſent a ſummons to M. Monteil, lieutenant-colonel of the 25th regiment, and commandant of the iſland, to ſurrender. He refuſed.

The ſituation of the enemy's works, which they had lately been ſtrengthening to the utmoſt of their power, was evidently much ſtronger than I had been taught to believe, and every day increaſed this ſtrength. Our numbers were unequal to the operations of a ſiege. Seeing there was no time to be loſt, I determined to aſſault the poſt that night. The troops lay upon their arms at the place where we had halted until one o'clock, at which time we formed, and marched at half paſt one, leaving the artillery under the care of Lieut. Hope and the detachment. The men were poſitively forbidden to fire, but to truſt entirely to the bayonet; the ſmallneſs of our number not juſtifying a diverſion to favour the general attack, which was determined to be on the north-weſt ſide, where I had reaſon to believe the work was moſt imperfect. We reached the town of Scarborough undiſcovered, but here we were fired upon from a houſe by ſome of the French inhabitants, which gave the garriſon the alarm; however no return of fire or delay was made.

In conſequence of a negro, who ſerved as a guide to the grenadiers, running away, a part of the column ſeparated in mounting the hill; this occaſioned a delay and ſeparation that could not be rectified during the night, which was extremely dark. Separated however as they were, the troops approached the fort; the light infantry and a part of the grenadiers on that ſide where the fort was moſt defenceleſs, and where the whole were to have made their effort. The other parts of the troops having taken the road which led directly to the barrier, and the enemy's fire commencing on the flank companies, the former advanced to attack the barrier under a heavy fire of round and grape ſhot and muſquetry, which drew the attention of the enemy to this part of the work; and the flank companies at the moment puſhing forward, very gallantly entered the work, upon which the enemy ſurrendered, and the humanity of the Britiſh troops accepted of them as priſoners of war.

Great praiſe is due to the officers and men for their behaviour, and particularly to Major Baillie and Major Gordon, the latter of whom left the command of his battalion, and ſolicited to lead the two light companies.—I cannot ſufficiently expreſs the obligations I am under to Vice-admiral Sir John Laforey for his ready and zealous exertions and aſſiſtance

to

to us in every ſtep of the buſineſs. I am alſo greatly indebted to Lieutenant-colonel Myers, of the 15th regiment, and to Lieutenant-colonel Lloyd, of the royal artillery. I had ſent for the former from Dominica, as being an officer of known abilities, and had choſen him as a proper perſon to be at the head of the quarter-maſter-general's department in this country, to which I have appointed him deputy, until his majeſty's pleaſure be known.

Incloſed I have the honour to ſend you a return of the killed and wounded, and of the priſoners taken in the fort.

This diſpatch will be delivered to you by Capt. Maitland, of the 60th regiment, acting deputy adjutant-general, who has been with me theſe five years, and is well qualified to give you much information relative to this country. I have the honour to be, ſir, your moſt obedient humble ſervant, C. CUYLER.

Return of the Killed and Wounded at the Attack of Fort Caſtries, in Tobago, the 15th of April, 1793.

60th Regiment, Grenadier Company of the 4th Battalion. 1 rank and file killed; 1 drummer, 5 rank and file, wounded.

Ditto, 4th Battalion. 2 rank and file killed; 8 rank and file wounded.

Ditto, light Company. 1 lieutenant, 4 rank and file, wounded.

9th Regiment, Light Company. 1 lieutenant, 1 drummer, 3 rank and file, wounded.

Names of the Officers wounded.

Lieutenant Stopford, of the 9th Regiment Grenadiers.

Lieutenant Gaver, of the 67th Regiment, but doing duty with the Light Company of the 4th Battalion of the 60th Regiment.

F. MAITLAND, Dep. Adj. Gen.

Return of French Priſoners taken in Fort Caſtries the 15th of April, 1793, by his Britannic Majeſty's Troops under the Command of Major-General Cuyler, Commander in chief, &c. &c.

STAFF.

M. A. Roque Monteil, Firſt Lieutenant-colonel of the 31ſt Regiment, and Military Commandant of Tobago.
1 Captain of Engineers.
1 Sous Lieutenant de Port.
1 Commiſſary of the Colony.
1 Interpreter of the Engliſh Language.
1 Storekeeper of the Artillery.
1 Treaſurer.
1 Commiſſary of Arms.
1 Phyſician to the Hoſpital.
1 Surgeon to ditto.
1 Commiſſary of Proviſions.
1 Ordonnateur.
5 Municipal Officers.

Artillery. 1 Captain, 10 Gunners.

31ſt Regiment. 1 Captain, 2 Firſt Lieutenants, 2 Second Lieutenants, 5 Serjeants, 58 Rank and file.

Sailors about 100; and it appears very evidently there muſt have been full that number of inhabitants armed, called national guard, and a number of mulattoes and negroes, who eſcaped in the dark when the fort was ſtormed; many of whom have ſince been taken, and others are ſurrendering themſelves daily.

The French had 15 killed and wounded.

F. MAITLAND, Dep. Adj. Gen.

Camp before VALENCIENNES, *Wedneſday, June* 18.

Yeſterday morning at three o'clock, Silveſter and Fabriani, two of the king's meſſengers, arrived at the ſecretary of ſtate's office, with diſpatches from Sir James Murray, adjutant-general to his royal highneſs the Duke of York.

On the morning of the 14th, the entrenchments were opened by Colonel Moncrife. Previous to this he ſummoned the garriſon to ſurrender. The anſwer returned treated it with the utmoſt contempt, accompanied by a copy of their oath, wrapped up in a national ribbon.

Soon after the receipt of this anſwer, the bombardment commenced from Mont Azain, and ſome men were wounded by the enemy's fire. On the 15th and 17th the town was obſerved to be on fire in five or ſix places, but it was ſoon extinguiſhed. On the 18th the firing continued; and at five in the evening the garriſon, with about 5000 men, made a ſortie, and attempted to ſpike ſome of our guns, but they were repulſed, and ſuffered much from having been expoſed to a heavy diſcharge of grape-ſhot. On this day all the batteries were opened.

The firſt parallel line was finiſhed on the 16th, with the loſs of about 40 killed and wounded, of which number the Engliſh have loſt but few. This loſs, conſidering that the workmen, covering parties, &c. amounted to 10,000 men, is comparatively ſmall.

On the 17th, a party of the enemy attacked a detachment of the combined army, and routed them from their ſtation, ſpiked ſome cannon, killed one ſerjeant and fifteen rank and file. The ſiege was carrying on with the utmoſt vigour by the combined forces when theſe letters came away.

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

HOUSE of COMMONS,
MONDAY, *June* 17.

MOTION RESPECTING THE WAR.

MR. FOX roſe, and obſerved, that he thought it a duty which he owed to himſelf as well as the people of the country, to ſtate before the riſing of parliament his deſire for peace; and he conceived it alſo a duty incumbent on the houſe, to ſtate their marked ſentiments alſo with reſpect to the preſent ruinous and unpopular war. When he conſidered the melancholy ſituation of every manufacturing and trading town in the kingdom, the numbers who were out of employment, and the forbidding proſpects of purſuing the war, he believed he ſpoke the unanimous ſenſe of the nation when he urged the neceſſity of an immediate peace: and he ſhould therefore move,

That an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, to lay before his majeſty the humble repreſentations of his faithful commons on the preſent awful and momentous criſis; a duty which they feel themſelves the more eſpecially called upon to perform at this juncture, as a long and eventful period may probably elapſe before his majeſty can again have an opportunity of collecting, thro' their repreſentatives, the real ſentiments and wiſhes of the people.

In the name of the people of England, his majeſty's faithful commons are bound to declare, that they concurred in the meaſures neceſſary to carry on the preſent war for the objects of defence and ſecurity, and for theſe objects only.

That any plan of aggrandizement, founded on the preſent diſtreſſed ſituation of France, much leſs any purpoſe of eſtabliſhing among the French people any particular form of government, never would have had their concurrence or ſupport.

In expreſſing theſe their ſentiments and opinions, on entering into the preſent war, his majeſty's faithful commons are ſenſible that they are only repeating thoſe benevolent declarations, which policy, and a careful attention to the real intereſts of the Britiſh nation, induced his majeſty to uſe, in his moſt gracious ſpeech from the throne, at the beginning of the preſent ſeſſion of parliament, and in repeated meſſages to this houſe.

To repreſent to his majeſty, that, though his faithful commons have the moſt perfect reliance on his majeſty's ſacred word and promiſe ſolemnly pledged to this country, and to Europe, not to interfere in the internal affairs of France, or to enter into the views and projects of other powers, who in the preſent war may be actuated by motives far different from thoſe which govern the conduct of his majeſty; yet they feel it to be their indiſpenſible duty to call his majeſty's moſt ſerious attention to ſome of the circumſtances which have occurred ſince the commencement of the preſent unfortunate conteſt.

The French arms, which, after a ſucceſsful invaſion of Brabant, had threatened the ſecurity of his majeſty's allies the States General, have ſince been confined within their own territory, and are now occupied in defence of their frontier towns againſt the united forces of his majeſty and his allies. The danger apprehended from the former conqueſts and aggrandizement of the French nation appears therefore to be no longer a ſubject of juſt uneaſineſs and alarm.

Some of the powers engaged in the confederacy againſt France have, on the other hand, openly avowed, and ſucceſsfully executed, plans of dominion and conqueſt, not leſs formidable to the general liberties of Europe. The rapacious and faithleſs diſmemberment of the unhappy kingdom of Poland, without having produced, as far as it appears to this houſe, any remonſtrance from his majeſty's miniſters, has excited in his majeſty's faithful commons the higheſt indignation at ſo daring an outrage on the rights of independent nations, and the keeneſt ſolicitude to reſcue the honour of the Britiſh government from the ſuſpicion of having concurred or acquieſced in meaſures ſo odious in their principle, and ſo dangerous in their example, to the peace and happineſs of mankind.

The ſevere calamities which, ſince the commencement of the preſent war, this nation has already experienced—the ſhock given to commercial credit, and the alarming conſequences which the failure of the mercantile and manufacturing intereſts threatens to the public revenue, and to the general proſperity of the country, cannot have failed to attract his majeſty's attention, and to excite in his benevolent mind a ſincere deſire to relieve his ſubjects from di-

treſſes;

treſſes of which they cannot hope for a termination but in the ſpeedy re-eſtabliſhment of peace.

His majeſty's faithful commons make it, therefore, their earneſt and ſolemn requeſt, that his majeſty, taking into his conſideration all the above circumſtances, will not fail to employ the earlieſt meaſures for procuring peace on ſuch terms as are conſiſtent with the profeſſed objects of the war, and with that good faith, ſtrict juſtice, and liberal and enlightened policy, which have hitherto ſo peculiarly diſtinguiſhed the Britiſh nation.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer ſaid, The motion has been introduced by the honourable gentlemen on the eve of the end of the ſeſſion, no doubt as a ſolemn expreſſion of the ſentiments entertained by him on the preſent ſtate of affairs; and I ſhould be ſorry that my opinion on the preſent occaſion ſhould be at all equivocal. I do not then heſitate to declare this motion in itſelf the moſt contradictory to thoſe general principles which at all times ought to regulate our conduct, and the moſt unſuitable to thoſe particular circumſtances in which we are now placed. Such is my opinion of the nature of this motion, which points out to us a line of conduct we can by no means purſue; namely, to make peace upon terms which, even if within our reach, we ought not to accept, but which, in fact, is only calculated to amuſe and delude the people, by holding out to them a poſſibility of peace, when, in reality, peace is impoſſible. The war has been attended, even in its outſet, with the moſt brilliant, rapid, and unexpected, ſucceſs The views of the enemy have experienced a moſt effectual check, and every circumſtance concurs to favour the hope of completely accompliſhing every object of the war. I declare, that on the part of this government there was no intention, if it had not been attacked, to interfere in the internal affairs of France. This was clearly proved by the ſyſtem of neutrality on our part ſo ſtrictly obſerved. But, having been attacked, I affirm, that there is nothing, either in the addreſſes to his majeſty or the declarations of his ſervants, which pledge us not to take advantage of any interference in the internal affairs of France that may be neceſſary. I, for my own part, repeat, that I have given no ſuch pledge. I do not ſay that, if without any interference ſufficient ſecurity and reparation could be had for this country, I would not, in this caſe, be of opinion that we ought to abſtain from all interference, and allow their government to remain even upon its preſent footing. But when you have ſeen yourſelves and all Europe attacked—when you have ſeen a ſyſtem eſtabliſhed, violating all treaties, diſregarding all obligations, and, under the name of the rights of man, uniting the principles of uſurpation abroad, tyranny and confuſion at home--you will judge whether you ought to ſit down without ſome ſecurity againſt the conſequences of ſuch a ſyſtem being again brought into action. And this ſecurity, it appears to me, can only be obtained in one of three modes—1ſt, That theſe principles ſhall no longer predominate; or, 2dly, That thoſe who are now engaged in them ſhall be taught that they are impracticable, and convinced of their own want of power to carry them into execution; or, 3dly, That the iſſue of the preſent war ſhall be ſuch, as by weakening their power of attack ſhall ſtrengthen your power of reſiſtance. Without theſe, you may indeed have an armed truce, a temporary ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities; but no permanent peace, no ſolid ſecurity to guard you againſt the repetition of injury and the renewal of attack. If on theſe points we have made up our minds, if we are determined to proſecute the war till we ſhall obtain proper ſatisfaction, and at leaſt be able to provide ſome ſecurity for the continuance of peace, the preſent motion can only tend to fetter the operations of war, to delude our ſubjects, to gratify the factious, to inflame the diſcontented, to diſcourage our allies, to ſtrengthen our enemies. What could be the effect of any negociation for peace in the preſent moment? It is not merely to the character of Marat, with whom we have to treat, that I object; it is not to the horror of thoſe crimes which have ſtained their legiſlators—crimes in every ſtage riſing above another in point of enormity; but I object to the conſequences of that character, to the effect of thoſe crimes. They are ſuch as render negociations uſeleſs, and muſt entirely deprive of all ſtability any peace which could be concluded under ſuch circumſtances. Where is our ſecurity for the performance of a treaty, where we have neither the good faith of a nation nor the reſponſibility of a monarch? The moment that the mob of Paris becomes under the influence of a new leader, the moſt ſolemn engagements are retracted, or free-will is altogether controuled. In every one of the ſtages of their repeated revolutions we have ſaid, "Now we have ſeen the worſt, the meaſure of iniquity is complete; we ſhall no longer be ſhocked or aſtoniſhed by the contemplation of added crimes and increaſing enormities." The next mail convinced us of our credulity, and,

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by preſenting us with freſh crimes, and enormities ſtill more dreadful, excited impreſſions of new aſtoniſhment and accumulated horror. All the crimes which diſgrace hiſtory have occurred in one country, in a ſpace ſo ſhort, and with circumſtances ſo highly aggravated, as outrun thought and exceed imagination. Should we treat with Marat, before we had finiſhed the negociation he might again have deſcended to the dregs of the people from whom he ſprang, and have given place to a ſtill more deſperate villain. A band of leaders have ſwayed the mob in conſtant ſucceſſion, all reſembling in guilt, but riſing one above another in point of enormity, each ſtriving to improve upon the crimes of his predeceſſor, and ſwell the black catalogue with new modes and higher gradations of wickedneſs—

Ætas parentum pejor avis tulit
Nos nequiores, mox daturos
Progeniem vitioſiorem.

No treaty can exiſt on their good faith, independent of the terms of peace. Could they be bound by engagements more ſolemn than thoſe to which they had pledged themſelves in return for our neutrality? What new engagements can be more binding, or from what part of the character of the leaders, or what change in the principles of action, can we expect greater good faith, or ſtricter attention to engagements, than were exhibited by their predeceſſors?

Mr. Huſſey ſaid he might feel the neceſſity of the war, but only felt the difficulty of finding ways and means to carry it on. He wiſhed, therefore, to hear the miniſter declare he was poſſeſſed of funds whence he could draw ſuch ſupport.

Mr. Pitt would pledge himſelf to no ſuch thing. Although trade was bad now, yet the deficiency in the current quarter partly aroſe from ſhips waiting for convoy: and he hoped to ſee the trade of the country flouriſh, even though the war ſhould continue.

Mr. Fox, in a maſterly manner, combated the ſeveral arguments, and pointed out the neceſſity of a peace.

On a diviſion, the addreſs was loſt, the numbers being, Ayes, 37—Noes, 187—Majority 140 for continuing the war.

HOUSE of LORDS.

FRIDAY, *June* 21.

About four o'clock his majeſty came in ſtate to the houſe of lords, and, being ſeated on the throne, gave the royal aſſent to ſeveral public and private bills; after which, the houſe of commons, with the ſpeaker at their head, having come to the bar, his majeſty delivered the following moſt gracious ſpeech:

"*My Lords and Gentlemen,*

"The firmneſs, wiſdom, and public ſpirit, by which your conduct has been eminently diſtinguiſhed on the many important occaſions which have ariſen during the preſent ſeſſion, demand my peculiar acknowledgments.

"Your firm determination to ſupport the eſtabliſhed conſtitution, and the zealous and general concurrence in that ſentiment, which my ſubjects have ſo ſtrongly and ſeaſonably manifeſted, could not fail to check every attempt to diſturb the internal repoſe of theſe kingdoms; and you will, I doubt not, in your ſeveral counties, encourage the continuance of the ſame vigilant attention to that important object.

"The rapid and ſignal ſucceſſes which in an early period of the campaign have attended the operations of the combined armies; the reſpectable and powerful force which you have enabled me to employ by ſea and land, and the meaſures which I have concerted with other powers for the effectual proſecution of the war, afford the beſt proſpect of an happy iſſue to the important conteſt in which we are engaged. It is only by perſeverance in vigorous exertions, and by endeavouring to improve the advantages already acquired, that we can hope to obtain the great end to which my views are uniformly directed, the reſtoration of peace on ſuch terms as may be conſiſtent with our permanent ſecurity, and with the general tranquillity of Europe."

"*Gentlemen of the Houſe of Commons,*

"I return you my particular thanks for the cheerfulneſs and diſpatch with which you have granted the neceſſary ſupplies; and I am happy to reflect, that you have been enabled liberally to provide for the exigencies of the publie ſervice in a manner ſo little burthenſome to my people."

"*My Lords and Gentlemen,*

"The arrangements which you have formed for the government of the Britiſh territories in India, and for the regulation of our commerce with that part of the world, will, I doubt not, ſecure and augment the important benefits which we have already derived from thoſe invaluable poſſeſſions. It has been impoſſible for me to ſee, without concern, the embarraſſment which has lately ariſen in the ſtate of commercial credit; but the ſteps which you have taken to prevent the progreſs of that evil appear already to have been productive of very ſalutary conſequences; and, while they have afforded a

ſtriking

ſtriking inſtance of your attention to the intereſts of my people, their effect has furniſhed additional reaſon to believe, that the diſtreſs which had been felt proceeded from a concurrence of temporary cauſes, and not from any diminution of the zeal, wealth, or any failure in the permanent reſources, of the country.

"I have much ſatisfaction in reflecting on the effectual protection which I have been enabled to afford to the trade of my ſubjects ſince the breaking out of the war. I am at the ſame time perſuaded, that, if our commercial intereſts had unavoidably been affected to a more conſiderable extent, it would not have been forgotten that we are contending for our future ſecurity, and for the permanent preſervation of advantages the moſt ſtriking and the moſt valuable which any nation has ever, by the bleſſing of Providence, been permitted to enjoy."

Then the lord chancellor, by his majeſty's command, ſaid,

"*My Lords and Gentlemen*,

"It is his majeſty's royal will and pleaſure, that this parliament be prorouged to Tueſday the thirteenth day of Auguſt next, to be then here holden; and this parliament is accordingly prorogued to Tueſday the thirteenth day of Auguſt next."

LIST OF PRIZES, continued from Page 32.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *June* 22.

Copy of a Letter from Captain Edward Pellew, of his Majeſty's ſhip La Nymphe, to Mr. Stephens, dated off Portland, June 19, 1793.

I HAVE the honour to inform you, that at day-light yeſterday morning I was ſo fortunate as to fall in with the national French frigate La Cleopatra, mounting 40 guns, and manned with 320 men, commanded by M. Jean Mullon, 3 days from St. Maloes, and had taken nothing. We brought her to cloſe action at half paſt ſix, and in 55 minutes took poſſeſſion of her; the two ſhips having fallen on-board each other, we boarded her from the quarter-deck and ſtruck her colours; and, finding it impoſſible to clear the ſhips then hanging head and ſtern, we came to anchor, which divided us, after we had received on-board 150 priſoners. The enemy fought us like brave men, neither ſhip firing a ſhot till we had hailed. Her captain was killed, three lieutenants wounded; the number of men not yet aſcertained; but, from the beſt accounts, about ſixty; her mizen-maſt overboard, and her tiller ſhot off. I am extremely concerned the was not purchaſed at a leſs expence of valuable officers and men on our part, whoſe loſs I cannot ſufficiently regret, and to whoſe gallantry I cannot poſſibly do juſtice. We had 23 men killed, and 27 wounded, of which a liſt is incloſed. I am very particularly indebted to my firſt lieutenant, Mr. Amherſt Morris, and no leſs ſo to Lieutenants George Luke and Richard Pellowe; and I was ably ſeconded on the quarter-deck by Lieutenant John Whitaker of the marines, and Mr. Thompſon the maſter; I hope I do not preſume in recommending thoſe officers to their lordſhips' favour and protection: and I ſhould do injuſtice to my brother Captain Iſrael Pellew, who was accidentally on-board, if I could poſſibly omit ſaying how much I owe him for his very diſtinguiſhed firmneſs, and the encouraging example he held forth to a young ſhip's company, by taking on him the directions of ſome guns on the main-deck.

Killed and Wounded on-board La Nymphe.

KILLED.—Mr. T. James, boatſwain; Mr. R. Pearſe, maſter's-mate; Mr. G. Boyd, midſhipman; Mr. J. Davy, ditto; Mr. S. Edſal, ditto; together with fourteen ſeamen and four private marines.

WOUNDED.—Lieutenant George Luke, ſecond lieutenant; Mr. John A. Norway, midſhipman; Mr. John Plaine, ditto; Mr. John Whitaker, lieutenant of marines; together with ſeventeen ſeamen and ſix privates marines.

The Phaeton frigate, Sir A. Snape Douglas, has alſo taken and ſent into Spithead the Prompt French frigate of 28 guns, and a very large privateer, both of which arrived on Friday the 21ſt of June. The Prompt fired three guns, and immediately ſtruck. She is an entire new ſhip, not having been off the ſtocks above ſix months. The privateer is manned with the fineſt fellows we ever remember to have ſeen, and are ſixty in number.

The Venus frigate, Captain Faulknor, fell in with a large French frigate of 38 guns, beſides carronades, who made many manœuvres to get the wind, by which the Venus was prevented bringing her to action until about eight o'clock in the morning; from which time till half paſt eleven the action continued very cloſe and warm; the French frigate was then perfectly ſilenced, and had been making off for ſome time; the did not fire a gun for the laſt half hour, but the Venus ſtill kept following her cloſe, and repeatedly raked

raked her on both quarters; ſo that her decks were totally deſerted, her ports lowered down, and without a doubt, in a ſhort time, ſhe muſt have ſtruck her colours; at this critical moment another frigate was diſcovered working up to her aſſiſtance; on ſeeing which ſhe made a private ſignal, which was immediately anſwered by the other, who hoiſted her French national colours, under a great preſs of ſail. Captain Faulknor was then under the neceſſity of leaving his opponent, and hauling his wind to get ready for the other frigate, which did not follow him, but ſtaid with the frigate ſo much beaten and diſtreſſed.

A very ſevere action has been fought in the Mediterranean, between the Iris frigate, of 32 guns and 220 men, and the Medée, a large French frigate, carrying 38 guns and 300 men. The action continued for full two hours, during which the Iris had ſeven men killed, and 23 wounded; but, while the Iris was purſuing the advantages this conteſt gave her, her foremaſt fell over the ſide, and, her rigging being much ſhattered, Capt Lumſdaine, her gallant commander, had the mortification to find himſelf unable to purſue the enemy. We are ſorry to add, that the maſter of the Iris is among the ſlain, and that Lieutenant Bennet, nephew to the Duke of Northumberland, is to be numbered among the wounded.

The Hind has been one of the moſt fortunate ſhips in the ſervice, having captured no leſs than 13 of the enemy's cruizers and merchantmen. Capt. Cochrane had intelligence of three French privateers cruizing on the coaſt of Ireland, and captured all of them.

The Circe frigate, Capt. York, has taken the Courier, a French ſchooner privateer, of 10 guns and 16 ſwivels; ſhe has alſo taken the Auguſta and the Dido, French privateers.

Advice is received at the Admiralty-office, that two homeward-bound French Eaſt-India-men had been taken by Admiral Gardner's ſquadron, and ſent into Liſbon.

The Commerce, Preble, from Charleſtown to Briſtol, was taken by the Tyger privateer, of St. Maloes, and re-taken by the Latona frigate, and arrived at Portſmouth.

The James, of and from Plymouth to Limerick, has been captured by a French privateer, and re-taken by the Latona frigate, and arrived at Portſmouth.

The La Nymphe frigate, has captured the Sans Culottes French privateer, of 17 guns, belonging to Nantes, and ſent her into Falmouth.

The Reſolution lugger, Capt. W. Le Lacheur, has captured the Reſolution brig, from l'Orient, bound to St. Maloes, with ſpices, valued at 8000l. and ſent her into Guernſey.

Arrived at Plymouth a French dogger-rigged veſſel, belonging to Dunkirk, of about 120 tons burthen, deeply laden with timber and other goods: ſhe was captured three weeks ſince on the coaſt of France, very near Nantz, by the Agenoira ſmall cutter privateer, of ſix ſwivel guns, belonging to Guernſey, Captain E. Mallet. —Alſo a Portugueſe brig, called the Noſtra Seniora de Conception Sevral, Captain Antonio Joze de Pinto, late maſter, laden with fruit and ſalt, from St. Ubes, bound to Cork, taken about ten days ſince by the l'Eſperance, a French privateer, and re-taken by his majeſty's ſhip Druid, of 32 guns, Capt. Elliſon, at the entrance of the Channel. The Druid likewiſe captured the l'Eſperance, abovementioned, a fine privateer, mounting 14 guns, with 60 men.

His majeſty's ſhip Oreſtes, of 16 guns, Lord Auguſtus Fitzroy, has brought into Plymouth, the El Carlos, a Spaniſh brig of 150 tons burthen, Capt. Dupoy, from New Orleans, laden with furs, indigo, and logwood, and is of great value. She had been taken by a French privateer, and was re-taken by the Oreſtes.

The Druid has alſo brought in a very fine French brig, of about 170 tons burthen, called the Dauphin, of Nantes, Durand maſterr, laded with a valuable cargo of cotton, coffee, anatto wood, and indigo.

The Boyne, Captain Otway, has taken a French privateer of 40 guns, and 160 men, a fine new veſſel, juſt off the ſtocks, out fourteen days from St. Maloes—had been unſucceſsful till that morning, when ſhe captured the Enterprize, a valuable ſhip from Calcutta, bound to Oſtend, the cargo ſuppoſed to be chiefly Engliſh property. The Enterprize was under American colours.

The Inconſtant frigate, has taken a French ſloop of war, of 18 guns, with a governor and general on-board, who were ſent home to be tried for their diſaffection to the new government; and a merchant-ſhip laden with indigo and cochineal.—She has alſo re-taken a South-ſea Engliſh whale-ſhip, taken by La Flora, French frigate; a rich Spaniſh ſhip; a Ruſſian veſſel laden with corn, for Liſbon; and a victualler, bound for the Weſt-Indies, from England.

L'Eſpoir privateer from Nantes, of 12 guns, and 124 men, is captured by the Creſcent frigate, and ſent into Guernſey.

CHARACTER OF THE LATE KING OF FRANCE.

LOUIS the Sixteenth was born on the 24th of Auguſt, 1754, and married on the 16th of May, 1770, to Marie-Antoinette archduchefs of Auſtria. Though ſlender in his younger years, he gradually acquired a healthy robuſt habit, which was probably encreaſed by the frequent exerciſe he took in hunting. He was rather above the middle ſize, inclining to be corpulent, uncouth in his gait, and deficient in what is underſtood by perſonal accompliſhments. His features were prominent, his countenance open, and it ſeemed to announce that honeſty was inſeparable from all his actions. His education was committed to the Duke of Vaugyon as governor, and the Biſhop of Limoges as preceptor, a man who was chiefly diſtinguiſhed for his piety. The king ſometimes obſerved himſelf, that his education had been neglected. His natural underſtanding was good; his judgment ſound and free from prejudice; his memory clear and uncommonly retentive; but, until his misfortunes began, his faculties had been but little exerciſed in public affairs, and even then, the habit of being guided by the opinion of others made him too diffident of his own.—Whether it was natural, or whether it aroſe from what he had obſerved himſelf, or imbibed from what he had heard from others, is difficult to determine, but he was diſtruſtful; the only perſon in whom he placed confidence was the queen, whom he conſtantly conſulted; yet he frequently diſputed her advice, alledging, that ſhe was influenced by others who he imagined deceived her. He was ſometimes blunt in his expreſſions, and it was eaſily perceived either when he was offended with or prejudiced againſt any one. The queen took great pains to ſoften the harſhneſs of his manners, and to engage him to ſay things that were obliging, of which he was in general very neglectful. Without poſſeſſing that fortitude that produces deciſion and leads to action, he had much perſonal courage; and, little occupied about his own ſafety, he was always unwilling to expoſe any one to danger on his account. When he was brought back from Varennes to the Thuilleries, the Duke of Briſſac ran to meet him, and endeavoured to kneel and kiſs his hand; the king ſaid immediately, in a low voice, *Eloignez-vous, mon ami, ils vous regardent tous.*—At the inſurrection of the 20th of June, 1792, when ſome ruffins were endeavouring to preſs forward to him, ſaying, they muſt have his life, one of the grenadiers, who on that occaſion defended and ſaved him, deſired his majeſty not to be alarmed. The king inſtantly ſeized him by the hand, and putting it on his breaſt ſaid, "Feel here, and you find that my heart beats with as little perturbation as your own." He was a moſt affectionate huſband, father, and brother; a juſt, kind, but not a generous, maſter. It was neceſſary ſometimes to put him in mind of thoſe who had a claim upon his bounty. He was humane and charitable. The ſums he gave for the relief of perſons in diſtreſs were known only to thoſe who conveyed them,—generally his confeſſor. His reſpect for truth was ſuch, that he was never known to have deſignedly told a falſehood. He was devout without bigotry, a punctual obſerver of the duties and practices of religion; and in his mind deteſted thoſe who ſeemed to be vain of their impiety. An enemy to every ſort of oſtentation—parſimonious in his perſonal expences, he frequently recommended œconomy to others, in which he was but ill obeyed.—But the ſtrong feature in his character was his love of juſtice.—As an individual, he would have been univerſally regarded *comme une parfaitement honnete homme.*—He was embarraſſed in converſation; but latterly, when he was affected, or warmed, he ſpoke with eaſe, and even energy: he expreſſed himſelf well in writing, and in very correct language: but both in ſpeaking and writing he was conciſe. He had an extenſive knowledge in geography; and there are ſcarcely any good maps or charts with which he was not intimately acquainted. He conſtantly roſe at ſeven in the morning. The hour from nine to ten was ſpent with the queen and his children. On the days

that he did not hunt, there was a council held at eleven. He dined regularly at two, with only the queen. At four he retired to his own apartment. There was frequently a council held at seven in the evening; when there was no evening council he sometimes went to the play, especially if a tragedy was to be represented, but he seldom ordered any particular play himself. He supped with all the royal family, in the apartment of the Countess de Provence, about a quarter after nine. At eleven he had his *couche*, where it was the custom to pay court to the kings of France, upon their retiring to their bedchamber in the same manner as at their levee. When this was over, he either went to bed immediately, or read, sometimes till midnight, sometimes even till one in the morning, but never later. There were now and then what are called *soupers de cabinet*, when all the royal family supped in the king's apartment, to which a certain number of persons were invited. The time not occupied by these engagements was spent in reading, drawing, and correcting maps from journals and manuscripts; in directing the workmen employed to execute plans given by himself at Versailles and Rambouillet; and sometimes in considering memorials and petitions, though he generally gave them to his ministers. From almost the beginning of the revolution, he was aware of his danger, and impressed with the idea that he should not survive it. He deeply felt the ingratitude of some; lamented the indiscretion of all; and, though early in the revolution a sovereign of a more decided character might have stopped its progress, he was soon so entirely abandoned by all those whose duty and interest ought to have insured him their support, that it seems almost impossible that he should afterwards have extricated himself from those dangers that ended in his death.

Such was the real character of Louis XVI. who, on the 22d of January, 1793, was murdered on a scaffold in the midst of his capital, in mockery of God, and in contempt of justice, leaving one daughter, and a son, the late dauphin, only eight years old.

HISTORY OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

[*Continued from page* 41.]

THE population of China is so great, in comparison with that of the European countries, that the accounts of it have generally been treated as fabulous by the western nations; but, by an accurate investigation of some Chinese records concerning the number of persons liable to taxation throughout the empire, they appear to be no less than 200 millions. For this extraordinary population are assigned the following causes. 1. The strict observance of filial duty throughout the empire, and the prerogatives of fraternity, which make a son the most valuable property of a father. 2. The infamy attached to the memory of those who die without children. 3. The universal custom by which the marriage of children becomes the principal concern of the parents. 4. The honours bestowed by the state on those widows who do not marry a second time. 5. Frequent adoptions, which prevent families from becoming extinct. 6. The return of wealth to its original stock by the disinheriting of daughters. 7. The retirement of wives, which renders them more complaisant to their husbands, saves them from a number of accidents when big with child, and constrains them to employ themselves in the care of their children. 8. The marriage of soldiers. 9. The fixed state of taxes; which, being always laid upon lands, never fall but indirectly on the trader and mechanic. 10. The small number of sailors and travellers. 11. To these may be added the great number of people who reside in China only by intervals; the profound peace which the empire enjoys; the frugal and laborious manner in which the great live; the little attention that is paid to the vain and ridiculous prejudice of marrying below one's rank; the ancient policy of giving distinction to men and not to families; by attaching nobility only to employments and talents, without suffering it to become hereditary. And lastly, A decency

decency of public manners, and a total ignorance of ſcandalous intrigues and vicious gallantry.

The government of China, according to the Abbé Groſier, is purely patriarchal. The emperor is more unlimited in his authority than any other potentate on earth; no ſentence of death, pronounced by any of the tribunals, can be executed without his conſent, and every verdict in civil affairs is ſubject to be reviſed by him; nor can any determination be of force until it has been confirmed by the emperor: and, on the contrary, whatever ſentence he paſſes is executed without delay; his edicts are reſpected throughout the empire as if they came from a divinity; he alone has the diſpoſal of all offices, nor is there any ſuch thing as the purchaſe of places in China; merit, real or ſuppoſed, raiſes to an office, and rank is attached to it only. Even the ſucceſſion to the throne is not altogether hereditary. The emperor of China has a power of chooſing his own ſucceſſor without conſulting any of his nobility; and can ſelect one not only from among his own children, but even from the body of his people; and there have been ſeveral inſtances of his making uſe of this right: and he has even a power of altering the ſucceſſion after it has been once fixed, in caſe the perſon pitched upon does not behave towards him with proper reſpect. The emperor can alſo prevent the princes of the blood from exerciſing the title, with which, according to the conſtitution of the empire, they are inveſted. They may indeed, notwithſtanding this, poſſeſs their hereditary dignity; in which caſe they are allowed a revenue proportioned to their high birth, as well as a palace, officers, and a court; but they have neither influence nor power, and their authority is lower than that of the meaneſt mandarin.

The revenue of the emperor amounts to more than 41 millions ſterling; and might eaſily be increaſed, did the ſovereign incline to burden his ſubjects with new impoſitions. The annual expences of government are indeed immenſe, but they are regulated in ſuch a manner as never to be augmented but in caſes of the utmoſt neceſſity; it even happens very often that adminiſtration makes greater ſavings every year. When this happens to be the caſe, the ſurplus ſerves to increaſe the general treaſure of the empire, and prevents the neceſſity of new impoſitions in time of war, or other public calamities. The greater part of the taxes are paid in kind; thoſe, for inſtance, who breed ſilk-worms, pay their taxes in ſilk, the huſbandmen in grain, the gardeners in fruits, &c. This method, at the ſame time that it is exceedingly convenient for the ſubject, is no way detrimental to the public intereſt. There are numbers of people every where in the ſervice of government, who are thus furniſhed with food and clothing; ſo that the commodities collected as taxes are almoſt conſumed in the provinces where they are levied; what remains is ſold for the behoof of the emperor, and the money depoſited in the imperial treaſury. The taxes paid in money ariſe principally from the cuſtoms and ſale of ſalt (which belongs entirely to the emperor), from the duties paid by veſſels entering any port, and from other impoſts on various branches of manufactures. Excepting theſe, the trader ſcarcely contributes any thing to the exigencies of the ſtate, and the mechanic nothing at all; the whole burden of taxation thus falling upon the huſbandman. This burden is regulated in proportion to the extent and fertility of his lands; and the greateſt care has been taken to manage matters ſo, that he may neither be overcharged in the impoſition, nor harraſſed in the levying of the duties. The levying of the taxes is as ſimple as the nature of the thing will admit of. The duties levied from towns and villages are carried to cities of the third claſs; then they are conducted to thoſe of the ſecond; then to thoſe of the firſt; and at laſt to the capital. The levying and impoſition of taxes is ſubmitted to the tribunal of finances; and matters are ſo managed, that, beſides the conſumption in each diſtrict for diſcharging the ordinary expences of government, ſomething is left by way of reſerve for anſwering accidental demands, and to be ready in caſes of neceſſity. This ſum becomes gradually leſs from the capital to cities of the firſt, ſecond, and third, claſs. A proper ſtatement of

what is paid in the provinces, of what is reſerved in the different cities, or contained in the different treaſuries of the empire, is ſubjected to the examination of the grand tribunal of finances. This reviſes the whole, and keeps an exact account of what is conſumed, and of whatever ſurplus may be left.

The mandarins are next in power to the emperor, and are of two claſſes, viz. thoſe of letters, and the inferior ſort, ſtyled mandarins of arms. The latter by no means enjoy the ſame conſideration with the former ſort; indeed in China the literati are highly honoured, and to their influence we may in a great meaſure aſcribe the mildneſs and equity of the government. Several degrees, anſwered to thoſe of bachelor, licentiate, and doctor, muſt be paſſed through, before one can obtain the dignity of a mandarin of letters; though ſometimes, by the favour of the emperor, it is conferred on thoſe who have attained only the two firſt degrees: but even the perſons who have gone through all the three enjoy at firſt only the government of a city of the ſecond or third claſs. When ſeveral vacancies happen in the government of cities, the emperor invites to court a correſponding number of the literati, whoſe names are written down in a liſt. The names of the vacant governments are then put into a box raiſed ſo high that the candidates are only able to reach it with their hands; after which they draw in their turns, and each is appointed governor of that city whoſe name he has drawn.

The whole adminiſtration of the Chineſe empire is entruſted to the mandarins of letters; and the homage paid by the common people to every mandarin in office almoſt equals that paid to the emperor himſelf. This indeed flows from the nature of their government. In China it is a received opinion that the emperor is the father of the whole empire; that the governor of a province is the father of that province; and that the mandarin who is governor of a city is alſo the father of that city. This idea is productive of the higheſt reſpect and ſubmiſſion, which is not at all leſſened by their great number; for, though the mandarins of letters amount to more than 14,000, the ſame reſpect is paid to every one of them.

The mandarins of arms are never indulged with any ſhare in the government of the ſtate; however, to attain to this dignity, it is alſo neceſſary to paſs through the degrees of bachelor, licentiate, and doctor, of arms. The accompliſhments neceſſary for a mandarin of arms are, ſtrength of body, with ability and readineſs in performing the various military exerciſes, and comprehending the orders requiſite for the profeſſion of arms: an examination on theſe ſubjects muſt be undergone before the candidate can obtain the wiſhed-for dignity.

The mandarins of arms have tribunals, the members of which are ſelected from amongſt their chiefs; and amongſt theſe they reckon princes, counts, and dukes; for all theſe dignities, or ſomething equivalent to them, are met with in China. The principal of theſe tribunals is held at Peking, and conſiſts of five claſſes. 1. The mandarins of the rear guard. 2. Of the left wing. 3. Of the right wing. 4. Of the advanced main guard. 5. Of the advanced guard.—Theſe five tribunals are ſubordinate to one of the great lords, whoſe authority extends over all the military men in the empire. By his high dignity he could render himſelf formidable even to the emperor; but, to prevent this inconvenience, he has for his aſſeſſor a mandarin of letters, who enjoys the title and exerciſes the function of ſuperintendant of arms. He muſt alſo take the advice of two inſpectors who are named by the emperor; and, when theſe four have agreed upon any meaſure, their reſolution muſt ſtill be ſubmitted to the reviſal of a higher court, which is entirely of a civil nature. The chief of theſe mandarins is a general whoſe powers are equivalent to thoſe of our commanders in chief; but below him are other mandarins who act as ſubordinate officers.

Theſe two claſſes of mandarins compoſe what is called the nobility of China; but, as we have already hinted, their office is not hereditary, the emperor alone continues or confers it. They have the privilege of remonſtrating to the emperor, either as indivi-

duals

duals or in a body, upon any part of his conduct which appears contrary to the intereſts of the empire. Theſe remonſtrances are ſeldom ill received, though the ſovereign complies with them only when he himſelf thinks proper. The number of literary mandarins in China is computed at upwards of 14,000; and thoſe of arms at 18,000; the former, however, are conſidered as the principal body in the empire; and this preference is thought to damp the military ardour of the nation in general, and to be one cauſe of that weakneſs in war for which the Chineſe are remarkable.

The whole civil government of China is managed by the following courts. 1. The emperor's grand council, compoſed of all the miniſters of ſtate, preſidents, and aſſeſſors of the ſubordinate courts. This is never aſſembled but on affairs of the greateſt importance; the emperor's private council being ſubſtituted for it in all caſes of ſmaller moment. 2. The chief of the other courts furniſhes mandarins for the different provinces, watches over their conduct, and keeps a journal of their tranſactions, and informs the emperor of them, who rewards or puniſhes according to the report he gets.

The ſecond tribunal, which may be called a kind of civil inquiſition, is ſubdivided into four others; the firſt entruſted with the care of ſelecting thoſe who, on account of their learning or other good properties, are capable of filling the offices of government; the ſecond appointed to take care of the conduct of the mandarins; the third affixing the ſeals to the different public acts, giving the ſeals to the mandarins, and examining thoſe of the different diſpatches; while the fourth enquires into the merit of the grandees of the empire, not excepting the princes of the imperial blood themſelves.

To prevent any unlawful combination among the tribunals, each has its cenſor appointed. This is an officer whoſe duty is merely to watch over the proceedings of the court, without deciding upon any thing himſelf. He aſſiſts therefore at all aſſemblies, reviſes all their acts, and, without acquainting the court in the leaſt with either his ſentiments or intentions, immediately informs the emperor of what he judges to be amiſs. He likewiſe gives information of the behaviour of the mandarins, either in the public adminiſtration of affairs, or in their private conduct; nay, ſometimes he will not ſcruple to reprimand the emperor for what he ſuppoſes to be erroneous in his conduct.

Theſe cenſors are never removed from their places but in order to be promoted; and thus, holding their offices for life, they have the greater courage to ſpeak out when they obſerve any impropriety or abuſe. Their accuſation is ſufficient to ſet on foot an inquiry, which generally leads to a proof: in which caſe the accuſed is diſcharged from his office, and never held in any eſtimation afterwards. The complaints of the cenſors, however, are referred to the very tribunals againſt whoſe members they complain; though, being afraid of an accuſation themſelves, they very ſeldom paſs ſentence againſt the accuſers.

Beſides all this, the cenſors alſo form a tribunal of their own. Its members have a right of remonſtrating with the emperor, whenever his own intereſt or that of the public renders it neceſſary. They inſpect all lawyers and military men in public employments. "In ſhort (ſays M. Groſier), they are, morally ſpeaking, placed between the prince and the mandarins; between the mandarins and the people; between the people and families; between families and individuals; and they generally unite to the importance of their office incorruptible probity and invincible courage. The ſovereign may, if he proceeds to rigour, take away their lives; but many of them have patiently ſuffered death, rather than betray the cauſe of truth, or wink at abuſes. It is not ſufficient therefore to have got rid of one, they muſt all be treated in the ſame manner; the laſt that might be ſpared would tread in the ſame ſteps, with no leſs reſolution than thoſe who went before him. In the annals of no nation do we find an example of ſuch a tribunal, yet it appears to be neceſſary in all, without exception. We muſt not, however, imagine, that the privileges of a cenſor give him a right to forget his duty to his ſovereign, or to communicate to the

the public thoſe remarks which he takes the liberty of making to him: were he only to give the leaſt hint of them to his colleagues, he would be puniſhed with death; and he would ſhare the ſame fate did he, in any of his repreſentations, ſuffer a ſingle word, inconſiſtent with moderation or reſpect, to eſcape him."

[*To be continued.*]

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

[*Continued from page* 45.]

WHEN thoſe delicate ſenſations we have been attempting to deſcribe which conſtitute *real* love, are directed to an object beyond our reach; or whoſe affections are engaged to another, or abſolutely denied to the ſupplicating lover; an incurable malady is apt to enſue, which is often attended with fatal conſequences. When the object of this affection is thought of, particularly if the idea is ſudden, the ſpirits are confuſed, the pulſe changes, and its force and time are very variable: in ſome inſtances, the perſon is ſad and watchful; in others, unconſcious of his ſtate, he pines away, is ſlothful, and regardleſs of food. As the paſſion prevails, ſighs grow deeper; a tremor affects the heart and pulſe; the countenance is alternately pale and red; the voice is ſuppreſſed; the eyes grow dim; cold ſweats break out; ſleep abſents itſelf; the ſecretions become diſturbed; and a loſs of appetite, a hectic fever, melancholy, or perhaps madneſs, or death, conſtitutes the ſad cataſtrophe; for there is no cure, but the abſolute poſſeſſion of the object on which the heart and mind are thus immovably fixed. In proof of this, we need only ſtate the following intereſting and authentic narrative from the Byzantine records:—Athens, long after the decline of the Roman empire, ſtill continued the ſeat of learning, politeneſs, and wiſdom. Theodoric the Oſtrogoth repaired the ſchools which barbarity was ſuffering to fall into decay, and continued thoſe penſions to men of learning which avaricious governors had monopolized.

In this city, and about this period, Alcander and Septimius were fellow-ſtudents together: the one the moſt ſubtle reaſoner of all the lyceum, the other the moſt eloquent ſpeaker in the academic grove. Mutual admiration ſoon begot a friendſhip. Their fortunes were nearly equal, and they were natives of the two moſt celebrated cities in the world; for Alcander was of Athens, Septimius came from Rome.

In this ſtate of harmony they lived for ſome time together; when Alcander, after paſſing the firſt part of his youth in the indolence of philoſophy, thought at length of entering into the buſy world; and, as a ſtep previous to this, placed his affections on Hypatia, a lady of exquiſite beauty. The day of their intended nuptials was fixed; the previous ceremonies were performed; and nothing now remained but her being conducted in triumph to the apartment of the intended bridegroom.

Alcander's exultation in his own happineſs, or being unable to enjoy any ſatisfaction without making his friend Septimius a partner, prevailed upon him to introduce Hypatia to his fellow-ſtudent; which he did with all the gaiety of a man who found himſelf equally happy in friendſhip and love. But this was an interview fatal to the future peace of both; for Septimius no ſooner ſaw her, but he was ſmitten with an involuntary paſſion; and, though he uſed every effort to ſuppreſs deſires at once ſo imprudent and unjuſt, the emotions of his mind in a ſhort time became ſo ſtrong, that they brought on a fever, which the phyſicians judged incurable.

During this illneſs, Alcander watched him with all the anxiety of fondneſs, and brought his miſtreſs to join in thoſe amiable offices of friendſhip. The ſagacity of the phyſicians, by theſe means, ſoon diſcovered that the cauſe of their patient's diſorder was love: and Alcander, being appriſed of their diſcovery, at length extorted a confeſſion from the reluctant dying lover.

It would but delay the narrative to deſcribe the conflict between love and friendſhip in the breaſt of Alcander on this

this occaſion; it is enough to ſay, that the Athenians were at that time arrived at ſuch refinement in morals, that every virtue was carried to exceſs. In ſhort, forgetful of his own felicity, he gave up his intended bride, in all her charms, to the young Roman. They were married privately by his connivance, and this unlooked-for change of fortune wrought as unexpected a change in the conſtitution of the now happy Septimius: in a few days he was perfectly recovered, and ſet out with his fair partner for Rome. Here, by an exertion of thoſe talents which he was ſo eminently poſſeſſed of, Septimius in a few years arrived at the higheſt dignities of the ſtate, and was conſtituted the city-judge, or prætor.

In the mean time Alcander not only felt the pain of being ſeparated from his friend and his miſtreſs, but a proſecution was alſo commenced againſt him by the relations of Hypatia, for having baſely given up his bride, as was ſuggeſted, for money. His innocence of the crime laid to his charge, and even his eloquence in his own defence, were not able to withſtand the influence of a powerful party. He was caſt, and condemned to pay an enormous fine. However, being unable to raiſe ſo large a ſum at the time appointed, his poſſeſſions were confiſcated, he himſelf was ſtripped of the habit of freedom, expoſed as a ſlave in the market-place, and ſold to the higheſt bidder.

A merchant of Thrace becoming his purchaſer, Alcander, with ſome other companions of diſtreſs, was carried into that region of deſolation and ſterility. His ſtated employment was to follow the herds of an imperious maſter, and his ſucceſs in hunting was all that was allowed him to ſupply his precarious ſubſiſtence. Every morning awaked to him a renewal of famine or toil, and every change of ſeaſon ſerved but to aggravate his unſheltered diſtreſs. After ſome years of bondage, however, an opportunity of eſcaping offered; he embraced it with ardour; ſo that travelling by night, and lodging in caverns by day, to ſhorten a long ſtory, he at laſt arrived in Rome. The ſame day on which Alcander arrived, Septimius ſat adminiſtering juſtice in the forum, whither our wanderer came, expecting to be inſtantly known, and publicly acknowledged, by his former friend. Here he ſtood the whole day amongſt the crowd, watching the eyes of the judge, and expecting to be taken notice of; but he was ſo much altered by a long ſucceſſion of hardſhips, that he continued unnoticed among the reſt; and, in the evening, when he was going up to the prætor's chair, he was brutally repulſed by the attending lictors. The attention of the poor is generally driven from one ungrateful object to another; for, night coming on, he now found himſelf under a neceſſity of ſeeking a place to lie in, and yet knew not where to apply. All emaciated, and in rags as he was, none of the citizens would harbour ſo much wretchedneſs; and ſleeping in the ſtreets might be attended with interruption or danger; in ſhort, he was obliged to take up his lodging in one of the tombs without the city, the uſual retreat of guilt, poverty, and deſpair. In this manſion of horror, laying his head upon an inverted urn, he forgot his miſeries for a while in ſleep; and found, on his flinty couch, more eaſe than beds of down can ſupply to the guilty.

As he continued here, about midnight two robbers came to make this their retreat; but, happening to diſagree about the diviſion of their plunder, the one of them ſtabbed the other to the heart, and left him weltering in blood at the entrance. In theſe circumſtances he was found next morning dead at the mouth of the vault. This naturally inducing a farther enquiry, an alarm was ſpread; the cave was examined; and Alcander, being found, was immediately apprehended, and accuſed of robbery and murder. The circumſtances againſt him were ſtrong, and the wretchedneſs of his appearance confirmed ſuſpicion. Misfortune and he were now ſo long acquainted, that he at laſt became regardleſs of life. He deteſted a world where he had found only ingratitude, falſehood, and cruelty; he was determined to make no defence; and thus, lowering with reſolution, he was dragged, bound with cords, before the tribunal of Septimius. As the proofs were poſitive againſt him, and he offered nothing in his own vindication, the judge was proceeding to doom him

him to a moſt cruel and ignominious death, when the attention of the multitude was ſoon divided by another object. The robber, who had been really guilty, was apprehended ſelling his plunder, and, ſtruck with a panic, had confeſſed his crime. He was brought bound to the ſame tribunal, and acquitted every other perſon of any partnerſhip in his guilt. Alcander's innocence therefore appeared, but the ſullen raſhneſs of his conduct remained a wonder to the ſurrounding multitude; yet their aſtoniſhment was ſtill farther encreaſed, when they ſaw their judge ſtart from his tribunal to embrace the ſuppoſed criminal: Septimius recollected his friend and former benefactor, and hung upon his neck with tears of pity and of joy. Need the ſequel be related? Alcander was acquitted: ſhared the friendſhip and honours of the principal citizens of Rome; lived afterwards in happineſs and eaſe; and left it to be engraved on the tomb, That no circumſtances are ſo deſperate, which Providence may not relieve.

DEFINITION OF HAPPINESS.

THIS intereſting ſubject has been treated by many writers, and in a great variety of ways; but by none does it appear to have been ſet in a clearer and more definite point of view than by Archdeacon Paley in the ſixth chapter of the Principles of Philoſophy. In ſtrictneſs (ſays that elegant writer) any condition may be denominated happy in which the amount or aggregate of pleaſure exceeds that of pain; and the degree of happineſs depends upon the quantity of this exceſs. And the greateſt quantity of it, ordinarily attainable in human life, is what we mean by happineſs, when we enquire or pronounce what human happineſs conſiſts in.

If any poſitive ſignification, diſtinct from what we mean by pleaſure, can be affixed to the term of happineſs, it may be taken to denote a certain ſtate of the nervous ſyſtem in that part of the human frame in which we feel joy and grief, paſſions and affections. Whether this part be the heart, which the turn of moſt languages would lead us to believe; or the diaphragm, as Buffon, or the upper orifice of the ſtomach, as Van Helmont, thought; or rather be a kind of fine network, lining the whole region of the præcordia, as others have imagined; it is poſſible not only that every painful ſenſation may violently ſhake and diſturb the fibres at the time, but that a ſeries of ſuch may at length ſo derange the very texture of the ſyſtem, as to produce a perpetual irritation, which will ſhew itſelf by fretfulneſs, reſtleſſneſs, and impatience. It is poſſible alſo, on the other hand, that a ſucceſſion of pleaſurable ſenſations may have ſuch an effect upon this ſubtle organization, as to cauſe the fibres to relax, and return into their place and order; and thereby to recover, or if not loſt to preſerve, that harmonious conformation which gives to the mind its ſenſe of complacency and ſatisfaction. This ſtate may be denominated *happineſs*: and is ſo far diſtinguiſhable from pleaſure, that it does not refer to any particular object of enjoyment, or conſiſt like pleaſure in the gratification of one or more of the ſenſes; but is rather the ſecondary effect which ſuch objects and gratifications produce upon the nervous ſyſtem, or the ſtate in which they leave it. The comparative ſenſe, however, in which we have explained the term *happineſs*, is more popular; and, in proſecuting the ſubject, we may conſider, 1. What human happineſs does not conſiſt in; and, 2. What it does conſiſt in.

Firſt, then, happineſs does not conſiſt in the pleaſures of ſenſe, in whatever profuſion or variety they be enjoyed. By the pleaſures of ſenſe are meant, as well the animal gratifications of eating, drinking, and that by which the ſpecies is continued, as the more refined pleaſures of muſic, painting, architecture, gardening, ſplendid ſhows, theatric exhibitions, and the pleaſures, laſtly, of active ſports, as of hunting, ſhooting, fiſhing, &c. For, 1. Theſe pleaſures continue but for a little while at a time. This is true of them all, eſpecially of the groſſer ſort. Laying aſide the preparation and the expectation,

and, computing ſtrictly the actual ſenſation, we ſhall be ſurpriſed to find how inconſiderable a portion of our time they occupy, how few hours in the four and twenty they are able to fill up. 2. By repetition they loſe their reliſh. It is a property of the machine, for which we know no remedy, that the organs by which we perceive pleaſure are blunted and benumbed by being frequently exerciſed in the ſame way. There is hardly any one who has not found the difference between a gratification when new and when familiar, and any pleaſure which does not become indifferent as it grows habitual. 3. The eagerneſs for high and intenſe delights takes away the reliſh from all others; and, as ſuch delights fall rarely in our way, the greater part of our time becomes from this cauſe empty and uneaſy. There is hardly any deluſion by which men are greater ſufferers in their happineſs, than by their expecting too much from what is called pleaſure; that is, from thoſe intenſe delights which vulgarly engroſs the name of pleaſure. The very expectation ſpoils them. When they do come, we are often engaged in taking pains to perſuade ourſelves how much we are pleaſed, rather than enjoying any pleaſure which ſprings naturally out of the object. And, whenever we depend upon being vaſtly delighted, we always go home ſecretly grieved at miſſing our aim. Likewiſe, when this humour of being prodigiouſly delighted has once taken hold of the imagination, it hinders us from providing for or acquieſcing in thoſe gently-ſoothing engagements, the due variety and ſucceſſion of which are the only things that ſupply a continued ſtream of happineſs.

The truth ſeems to be, that there is a limit at which theſe pleaſures ſoon arrive, and from which they ever afterwards decline. They are by neceſſity of ſhort duration, as the organs cannot hold on their emotions beyond a certain length of time; and, if you endeavour to compenſate for this imperfection in their nature by the frequency with which you repeat them, you loſe more than you gain by the fatigue of the faculties and the diminution of ſenſibility. We have in this account ſaid nothing of the loſs of opportunities or the decay of faculties, which whenever they happen leave the voluptuary deſtitute and deſperate; teaſed by deſires that never can be gratified, and the memory of pleaſures which muſt return no more. It will alſo be allowed by thoſe who have experienced it, and perhaps by thoſe alone, that pleaſure which is purchaſed by the encumbrance of our fortune is purchaſed too dear; the pleaſure never compenſating for the perpetual irritation of embarraſſed circumſtances.

Theſe pleaſures, after all, have their value: and, as the young are always too eager in their purſuit of them, the old are ſometimes too remiſs; that is, too ſtudious of their eaſe to be at the pains for them which they really deſerve.

Secondly, Neither does happineſs conſiſt in an exemption from pain, labour, care, buſineſs, ſuſpenſe, moleſtation, and "thoſe evils which are without;" ſuch a ſtate being uſually attended not with eaſe, but with depreſſion of ſpirits, a taſteleſſneſs in all our ideas, imaginary anxieties, and the whole train of hypochondriacal affections. For which reaſon it ſeldom anſwers the expectations of thoſe who retire from their ſhops and counting-houſes to enjoy the remainder of their days in leiſure and tranquillity; much leſs of ſuch as in a fit of chagrin ſhut themſelves up in cloiſters and hermitages, or quit the world and their ſtations in it, for ſolitude and repoſe.

Where there exiſts a known external cauſe of uneaſineſs, the cauſe may be removed, and the uneaſineſs will ceaſe. But thoſe imaginary diſtreſſes which men feel for want of real ones, and which are equally tormenting, (and ſo far equally real,) as they depend upon no ſingle or aſſignable ſubject of uneaſineſs, ſo they admit oft-times of no application or relief. Hence a moderate pain, upon which the attention may faſten and ſpend itſelf, is to many a refreſhment; as a fit of the gout will ſometimes cure the ſpleen. And the ſame of any moderate agitation of the mind, as a literary controverſy, a law-ſuit, a conteſted election, and above all gaming; the paſſion for which, in men of fortune and liberal minds, is only to be accounted for on this principle.

Thirdly,

Thirdly, Neither does happineſs conſiſt in greatneſs, rank, or elevated ſtation.

Were it true that all ſuperiority afforded pleaſure, it would follow, that, by how much we were the greater, that is, the more perſons we were ſuperior to,) in the ſame proportion, ſo far as depended upon this cauſe, we ſhould be the happier; but ſo it is, that no ſuperiority yields any ſatisfaction, ſave that which we poſſeſs or obtain over thoſe with whom we immediately compare ourſelves. The ſhepherd perceives no pleaſure in his ſuperiority over his dog; the farmer in his ſuperiority over the ſhepherd; the lord in his ſuperiority over the farmer; nor the king, laſtly, in his ſuperiority over the lord. Superiority, where there is no competition, is ſeldom contemplated; what moſt men indeed are quite unconſcious of. But, if the ſame ſhepherd can run, fight, or wreſtle, better than the peaſants of his village; if the farmer can ſhew better cattle, if he keeps a better horſe, or be ſuppoſed to have a longer purſe, than any farmer in the hundred; if the lord has more intereſt in an election, greater favour at court, a better houſe, or larger eſtate, than any nobleman in the country; if the king poſſeſſes a more extenſive territory, a more powerful fleet or army, a more ſplendid eſtabliſhment, more loyal ſubjects, or more weight and authority in adjuſting the affairs of nations, than any prince in Europe; in all theſe caſes, the parties feel an actual ſatisfaction in their ſuperiority. No ſuperiority appears to be of any account but a ſuperiority over a rival. This, it is manifeſt, may exiſt wherever rivalſhips do; and rivalſhips fall out amongſt men of all ranks and degrees. The object of emulation, the dignity or magnitude of this object, makes no difference; as it is not what either poſſeſſes that conſtitutes the pleaſure, but what one poſſeſſes more than the other. Philoſophy ſmiles at the contempt with which the rich and great ſpeak of the petty ſtrifes and competitons of the poor; not reflecting that theſe ſtrifes and competitions are juſt as reaſonable as their own, and the pleaſure, which ſucceſs affords, the ſame.

It appears evident, then, that happineſs does not conſiſt in greatneſs; ſince what are ſuppoſed to be the peculiar advantages of greatneſs, the pleaſures of ambition and ſuperiority, are in reality common to all conditions. But, whether the purſuits of ambition be ever wiſe, whether they contribute more to the happineſs or miſery of the purſuers, is a different queſtion, and a queſtion concerning which we may be allowed to entertain great doubt. The pleaſure of ſucceſs is exquiſite; ſo alſo is the anxiety of the purſuit, and the pain of diſappointment; and, what is the worſt part of the account, the pleaſure is ſhort-lived. We ſoon ceaſe to look back upon thoſe whom we have left behind; new conteſts are engaged in, new proſpects unfold themſelves; a ſucceſſion of ſtruggles is kept up, whilſt there is a rival left within the compaſs of our views and profeſſion; and, when there is none, the pleaſure with the purſuit is an end.

We have ſeen what happineſs does not conſiſt in: we are now to conſider in what it does conſiſt. In the conduct of life, the great matter is, to know beforehand what will pleaſe us, and what pleaſures will hold out. So far as we know this, our choice will be juſtified by the event. And this knowledge is more rare and difficult than at firſt ſight it may ſeem to be: for ſometimes pleaſures, which are wonderfully alluring and flattering in the proſpect, turn out in the poſſeſſion extremely inſipid; or do not hold out as we expected: at other times pleaſures ſtart up, which never entered into our calculation, and which we might have miſſed of by not foreſeeing; from whence we have reaſon to believe, that we actually do miſs of many pleaſures from the ſame cauſe.

By reaſon of the original diverſity of taſte, capacity, and conſtitution, obſervable in the human ſpecies, and the ſtill greater variety which habit and faſhion have introduced in theſe particulars; it is impoſſible to propoſe any plan of happineſs which will ſucceed to all, or any method of life which is univerſally eligible or practicable. All that can be ſaid is, that there remains a preſumption in favour of thoſe conditions of life in which men generally appear moſt cheerful and contented.

For,

For, though the apparent happineſs of mankind be not always a true meaſure of their real happineſs, it is the beſt meaſure we have.

Upon this principle, then, happineſs appears to conſiſt in the exerciſe of the ſocial affections.—Thoſe perſons commonly poſſeſs good ſpirits, who have about them many objects of affection and endearment; as wife, children, kindred, friends: and to the want of theſe may be imputed the peeviſhneſs of monks, and of ſuch as lead a monaſtic life. Of the ſame nature with the indulgence of our domeſtic affections, and equally refreſhing to the ſpirits, is the pleaſure which reſults from acts of bounty and beneficence, exerciſed either in giving money, or in imparting to thoſe who want it the aſſiſtance of our ſkill and profeſſion.

Another main article of human happineſs is, the exerciſe of our faculties, either of body or mind, in ſome engaging end. It ſeems to be true that no plenitude of preſent gratifications can make the poſſeſſor happy for a continuance, unleſs he has ſomething in reſerve, ſomething to hope for and look forward to. This may be inferred from comparing the alacrity and ſpirits of men who are engaged in any purſuit which intereſts them, with the dejection and *ennui* of almoſt all who are either born to ſo much that they want nothing more, or who have uſed up their ſatisfactions too ſoon, and have drained the ſources of them. It is this intolerable vacuity of mind which carries the rich and great to the horſe-courſe and the gaming-table; and often engages them in conteſts and purſuits of which the ſucceſs bears no proportion to the ſolicitude and expence with which they are ſought. The queſtion now occurs, How we are to provide ourſelves with a ſucceſſion of pleaſurable engagements? This requires two things: Judgment in the choice of ends adapted to our opportunities; and a command of imagination, ſo as to be able, when the judgment has made choice of an end, to transfer a pleaſure to the *means*; after which the end may be forgotten as ſoon as we will. Hence thoſe pleaſures are moſt valuable, not which are moſt exquiſite in the fruition, but moſt productive of engagement and activity in the purſuit.

A man who is in earneſt in his endeavours after the happineſs of a future ſtate, has in this reſpect an advantage over all the world. For he has conſtantly before his eyes an object of ſupreme importance, productive of perpetual engagement and activity, and of which the purſuit (which can be ſaid of no purſuit beſides) laſts him to his life's end. Yet even he muſt have many ends beſides the far end; but then they will conduct to that, be ſubordinate and in ſome way or other capable of being referred to that, and derive their ſatisfaction, or an addition of ſatisfaction, from that.

Engagement is every thing. The more ſignificant, however, our engagements are, the better; ſuch as the planning of laws, inſtitutions, manufactures, charities, improvements, public works; and the endeavouring by our intereſt, addreſs, ſolicitations, and activity, to carry them into effect: or, upon a ſmaller ſcale, the procuring of a maintenance and fortune for our families, by a courſe of induſtry and application to our callings, which forms and gives motion to the common occupations of life; training up a child; proſecuting a ſcheme for his future eſtabliſhment; making ourſelves maſters of a language or a ſcience; improving or managing an eſtate; labouring after a piece of preferment: and, laſtly, any engagement which is innocent is better than none: as the writing of a book, the building of a houſe, the laying out of a garden, the digging of a fiſh-pond; even the raiſing of a cucumber or a tulip. Whilſt the mind is taken up with the object or buſineſs before it, we are commonly happy, whatever the object or buſineſs be: when the mind is abſent, and the thoughts are wandering to ſomething elſe than what is paſſing in the place in which we are, we are often miſerable.

The art in which the ſecret of human happineſs in a great meaſure conſiſts, is to ſet the habits in ſuch a manner, that every change may be a change for the better. The habits themſelves are much the ſame; for whatever is made habitual becomes ſmooth, eaſy, and indifferent. The

return to an old habit is likewiſe eaſy, whatever the habit be. Therefore the advantage is with thoſe habits which allow of indulgence in the deviation from them. The luxurious receive no greater pleaſure from their dainties than the peaſant does from his bread and cheeſe; but the peaſant whenever he goes abroad finds a feaſt, whereas the epicure muſt be well entertained to eſcape diſguſt. Thoſe who ſpend every day at cards, and thoſe who go every day to plough, paſs their time much alike; intent upon what they are about, wanting nothing, regretting nothing, they are both in a ſtate of eaſe: but then, whatever ſuſpends the occupation of the card-player diſtreſſes him; whereas, to the labourer, every interruption is a refreſhment; and this appears in the different effect that the Sabbath produces upon the two, which proves a day of recreation to the one, but a lamentable burden to the other. The man who has learned to live alone feels his ſpirits enlivened whenever he enters into company, and takes his leave without regret: another, who has long been accuſtomed to a crowd or continual ſucceſſion of company, experiences in company no elevation of ſpirits, nor any greater ſatisfaction than what the man of a retired life finds in his chimney-corner. So far their conditions are equal: but let a change of place, fortune, or ſituation, ſeparate the companion from his circle, his viſitors, his club, his common-room, or coffee-houſe, and the difference of advantage in the choice and conſtitution of the two habits will ſhew itſelf. Solitude comes to the one clothed with melancholy: to the other it brings liberty and quiet. You will ſee the one fretful and reſtleſs, at a loſs how to diſpoſe of his time, till the hour comes round that he can forget himſelf in bed: the other eaſy and ſatisfied, taking up his book or his pipe as ſoon as he finds himſelf alone; ready to admit any little amuſement that caſts up, or to turn his hands and attention to the firſt buſineſs that preſents itſelf; or content without either to ſit ſtill, and let his trains of thought glide indolently through his brain, without much uſe perhaps of pleaſure, but without hankering after any thing better, and without irritation. A reader who has inured himſelf to books of ſcience and argumentation, if a novel, a well-written pamphlet, an article of news, a narrative of a curious voyage, or the journal of a traveller, fall in his way, ſits down to the repaſt with reliſh, enjoys his entertainment while it laſts, and can return when it is over to his graver reading without diſtaſte. Another, with whom nothing will go down but works of humour and pleaſantry, or whoſe curioſity muſt be intereſted by perpetual novelty, will conſume a bookſeller's window in half a forenoon; during which time he is rather in ſearch of diverſion than diverted: and, as books to his taſte are few and ſhort, and rapidly read over, the ſtock is ſoon exhauſted, when he is left without reſource from this principal ſupply of innocent amuſement.

So far as circumſtances of fortune conduce to happineſs, it is not the income which any man poſſeſſes, but the increaſe of income, that affords the pleaſure. Two perſons, of whom one begins with 100l. and advances his income to 1000l. a-year; and the other ſets off with 1000l. and dwindles down to 100l. may, in the courſe of their time, have the receipt and ſpending of the ſame ſum of money; yet their ſatisfaction, ſo far as fortune is concerned in it, will be very different: the ſeries and ſum total of their incomes being the ſame, it makes a wide difference which end they begin at.

Happineſs greatly conſiſts in health; underſtanding by health not only freedom from bodily diſtempers, but alſo that tranquillity, firmneſs, and alacrity of mind, which we call good ſpirits. For the ſake of health, according to this notion of it, no ſacrifices can be too great. Whether it require us to relinquiſh lucrative ſituations, to abſtain from favourite indulgences, to controul intemperate paſſions or undergo tedious regimens; whatever difficulties it lays us under, a man, who purſues his happineſs rationally and reſolutely, will be content to ſubmit to. When we are in perfect health and ſpirits, we feel in ourſelves a happineſs independent of any particular outward gratification whatever, and of which we can give no account. This is an enjoyment which

which the Deity has annexed to life; and probably conſtitutes, in a great meaſure, the happineſs of infants and brutes, eſpecially of the lower and ſedentary orders of animals.

This account of human happineſs will juſtify theſe two concluſions, which, although found in moſt books of morality, have ſeldom been ſupported by any ſufficient reaſons: 1. "That happineſs is pretty equally diſtributed amongſt the different orders of civil ſociety; and, 2. That vice has no advantage over virtue, even with reſpect to this world's happineſs."

OF TASTE AND CRITICISM.

THE art of judging with propriety concerning any object, or combination of objects, is what we call taſte and criticiſm. But, in a more limited ſenſe, the ſcience of criticiſm is confined to the fine arts. The principles of the fine arts are beſt unfolded by ſtudying the ſenſitive part of our nature, and by learning what objects are naturally agreeable and what are naturally diſagreeable. The man who aſpires to be a critic in theſe arts, muſt pierce ſtill deeper: he muſt clearly perceive what objects are lofty, what low, what are proper or improper, what are manly, and what are mean or trivial. Hence a foundation for judging of taſte, and for reaſoning upon it: where it is conformable to principles, we can pronounce with certainty that it is correct; otherwiſe, that it is incorrect, and perhaps whimſical. Thus the fine arts, like morals, become a rational ſcience; and, like morals, may be cultivated to a high degree of refinement.

Manifold are the advantages of criticiſm, when thus ſtudied as a rational ſcience. In the firſt place, a thorough acquaintance with the principles of the fine arts redoubles the entertainment theſe arts afford. To the man who reſigns himſelf entirely to ſentiment or feeling, without interpoſing any ſort of judgment, poetry, muſic, painting, are mere paſtime; in the prime of life, indeed, they are delightful, being ſupported by the force of novelty and the heat of imagination: but they loſe their reliſh gradually with their novelty; and are generally neglected in the maturity of life, which diſpoſes to more ſerious and more important occupations. To thoſe who deal in criticiſm as a regular ſcience, governed by juſt principles, and giving ſcope to judgment as well as to fancy, the fine arts are a favourite entertainment; and in old age maintain that reliſh which they produce in the morning of life.

In the next place, a philoſophical enquiry into the principles of the fine arts inures the reflecting mind to the moſt enticing ſort of logic: the practice of reaſoning upon ſubjects ſo agreeable tends to a habit; and a habit ſtrengthening the reaſoning faculties prepares the mind for entering into ſubjects more difficult and abſtract. To have in this reſpect a juſt conception of the importance of criticiſm, we need but reflect upon the common method of education; which, after ſome years ſpent in acquiring languages, hurries us, without the leaſt preparatory diſcipline, into the moſt profound philoſophy: a more effectual method to alienate the tender mind from abſtract ſcience is beyond the reach of invention: and accordingly with reſpect to ſuch ſpeculations, the bulk of our youth contract a ſort of hobgoblin terror, which is ſeldom, if ever, ſubdued. Thoſe who apply to the arts are trained up in a very different manner: they are led, ſtep by ſtep, from the eaſier parts of the operation to what are more difficult; and are not permitted to make a new motion till they be perfected in thoſe which regularly precede it. The ſcience of criticiſm appears then to be a middle link, connecting the different parts of education into a regular chain. This ſcience furniſheth an inviting opportunity to exerciſe the judgment: we delight to reaſon upon ſubjects that are equally pleaſant and familiar: we proceed gradually from the ſimpler to the more involved caſes: and, in a due courſe of diſcipline, cuſtom, which improves all our faculties, beſtows acuteneſs upon thoſe of reaſon, ſufficient to unravel all the intricacies of philoſophy.

Nor ought it to be overlooked, that the

the reaſonings employed upon the fine arts are of the ſame kind with thoſe which regulate our conduct. Mathematical and metaphyſical reaſonings have no tendency to improve ſocial intercourſe; nor are they applicable to the common affairs of life: but a juſt taſte in the fine arts, derived from rational principles, furniſhes elegant ſubjects for converſation, and prepares us finely for acting in the ſocial ſtate with dignity and propriety.

The ſcience of rational criticiſm tends to improve the heart not leſs than the underſtanding. It helps, in the firſt place, to moderate the ſelfiſh affections; by ſweetening and harmonizing the temper, it is a ſtrong antidote to the turbulence of paſſion and violence of purſuit; it procures to a man ſo much mental enjoyment, that, in order to be occupied, he is not tempted in youth to precipitate into hunting, gaming, drinking; nor in middle age to deliver himſelf over to ambition; nor in old age to avarice. Pride and envy, two diſguſtful paſſions, find in the conſtitution no enemy more formidable than a delicate and diſcerning taſte: the man upon whom nature and culture have beſtowed this bleſſing feels great delight in the virtuous diſpoſition and actions of others: he loves to cheriſh them, and to publiſh them to the world: faults and failings, it is true, are to him not leſs obvious; but theſe he avoids, or removes out of ſight, becauſe they give him pain. On the other hand, a man void of taſte, upon whom the moſt ſtriking beauties make but a faint impreſſion, has no joy but in gratifying his pride or envy by the diſcovery of errors and blemiſhes. In a word, there may be other paſſions, which, for a ſeaſon, diſturb the peace of ſociety more than thoſe mentioned: but no other paſſion is ſo unwearied an antagoniſt to the ſweets of ſocial intercourſe: theſe paſſions, tending aſſiduouſly to their gratification, put a man perpetually in oppoſition to others; and diſpoſe him more to reliſh bad than good qualities, even in a companion. How different that diſpoſition of mind, where every virtue in a companion or neighbour is, by refinement of taſte, ſet in its ſtrongeſt light; and defects or blemiſhes, natural to all, are ſuppreſſed, or kept out of view!

In the next place, delicacy of taſte tends not leſs to invigorate the ſocial affections than to moderate thoſe that are ſelfiſh. To be convinced of this tendency, we need only reflect, that delicacy of taſte neceſſarily heightens our ſenſibility of pain and pleaſure, and of courſe our ſympathy, which is the capital branch of every ſocial paſſion. Sympathy, in particular, invites a communication of joys and ſorrows, hopes and fears: ſuch exerciſe, ſoothing and ſatisfactory in itſelf, is neceſſarily productive of mutual good-will and affection.

One other advantage of rational criticiſm is reſerved to the laſt place, being of all the moſt important; which is, that it is a great ſupport to morality. No occupation attaches a man more to his duty than that of cultivating a taſte for the fine arts: a juſt reliſh of what is beautiful, proper, elegant, and ornamental, in writing or painting, in architecture or gardening, is a fine preparation for the ſame juſt reliſh of theſe qualities in character and behaviour. To the man who has acquired a taſte ſo acute and accompliſhed, every action wrong or improper muſt be highly diſguſtful: if, in any inſtance, the overbearing power of paſſion ſway him from his duty, he returns to it, upon the firſt reflection, with redoubled reſolution never to be ſwayed a ſecond time: he has now an additional motive to virtue, a conviction, derived from experience, that happineſs depends on regularity and order, and that a diſregard to juſtice or propriety never fails to be puniſhed with ſhame and remorſe.

INSTABILITY OF FORTUNE.

THE ſudden invaſion of an enemy overthrows ſuch as are not on their guard; but they who foreſee the war, and prepare themſelves for it before it breaks out, ſtand without difficulty the firſt and the fierceſt onſet. I learned this important leſſon long ago, and never truſted to fortune even while ſhe ſeemed to be at peace with me. The riches, the honours, the reputation,

tion, and all the advantages, which her treacherous indulgence poured upon me, I placed ſo, that ſhe might ſnatch them away without giving me any diſturbance. I kept a great interval between me and them. She took them, but ſhe could not tear them, from me. No man ſuffers by bad fortune, but he who has been deceived by good. If we grow fond of her gifts, fancy that they belong to us, and are perpetually to remain with us; if we lean upon them, and expect to be conſidered for them; we ſhall ſink into all the bitterneſs of grief, as ſoon as theſe falſe and tranſitory benefits paſs away, as ſoon as our vain and childiſh minds, unfraught with ſolid pleaſures, become deſtitute even of thoſe which are imaginary. But, if we do not ſuffer ourſelves to be tranſported with proſperity, neither ſhall we be reduced by adverſity. Our ſouls will be proof againſt the dangers of both theſe ſtates; and, having explored our ſtrength, we ſhall be ſure of it; for, in the midſt of felicity, we ſhall have tried how we can bear misfortune.

HISTORY OF THE GYPSIES.

GYPSIES are an outlandiſh tribe of vagabonds, who, diſguiſing themſelves in uncouth habits, ſmearing their faces and bodies, and framing to themſelves a canting language, wander up and down, and, under pretence of telling fortunes, curing diſeaſes, &c. abuſe the common people, trick them of their money, and ſteal all they can come at. They firſt made their appearance in Germany about the beginning of the 16th century. Hiſtorians inform us, that, when Sultan Selim conquered Egypt in the year 1517, ſeveral of the natives refuſed to ſubmit to the Turkiſh yoke, and revolted under one Zinganeus; whence the Turks call them Zinganees; but, being at length ſurrounded and baniſhed, they agreed to diſperſe in ſmall parties all over the world, where their ſuppoſed ſkill in the black art gave them an univerſal reception in that age of ſuperſtition and credulity. In the compaſs of a very few years they gained ſuch a number of idle proſelytes (who imitated their language and complexion, and betook themſelves to the ſame arts of chiromancy, begging, and pilfering), that they became troubleſome, and even formidable, to moſt of the ſtates of Europe. Hence they were expelled from France in the year 1560, and from Spain in 1591. But the government of England took the alarm much earlier: for in 1530 they are deſcribed by ſtat. 22 Henry VIII. c. 10. as "an outlandiſh people, calling themſelves Egyptians, uſing no craft nor feat of merchandize, who have come into this realm, and gone from ſhire to ſhire, and place to place, in great companies, and uſed great, ſubtle, and crafty, means to deceive the people; bearing them in hand that they by palmiſtry could tell men's and women's fortunes; and ſo many times by craft and ſubtilty have deceived the people of their money, and alſo have committed many heinous felonies and robberies." Wherefore they are directed to avoid the realm and not to return under pain of impriſonment and forfeiture of their goods and chattels; and, upon their trials for any felony which they may have committed, they ſhall not be entitled to a jury *de medietate linguæ*. And afterwards it is enacted, by ſtatutes 1ſt and 2d Ph. and Mary, c. 4. and 5th Eliz. c. 20. that, if any ſuch perſons ſhall be imported into the kingdom, the importer ſhall forfeit 40l. And if the Egyptians themſelves remain one month in the kingdom, or if any perſon, being fourteen years old, whether natural-born ſubject or ſtranger, which hath been ſeen or found in the fellowſhip of ſuch Egyptians, or which hath diſguiſed him or herſelf like them, ſhall remain in the ſame one month at one or ſeveral times, *it is felony without benefit of clergy*. And Sir M. Hale informs us, that at one Suffolk aſſizes no leſs than thirteen perſons were executed upon theſe ſtatutes a few years before the reſtoration. But, to the honour of our national humanity, there are no inſtances more modern than this of carrying theſe laws into practice; and the laſt ſanguinary act is itſelf now repealed by 23 Geo. III. c. 54.

It is incredible to think how this regular

gular ſwarm of banditti has ſpread itſelf over the face of the earth. They wander about in Aſia, in the interior parts of Africa, and, like locuſts, have over-run moſt of the European nations. In the reigns of Hen. VIII. and Queen Elizabeth, as we have ſeen, they were ſet up as a mark of general perſecution in England; yet their numbers do not appear to have much diminiſhed. Spain is ſuppoſed to contain 40,000 of theſe vagrants. They are leſs numerous in France in conſequence of the ſtrictneſs of the police. In Italy they abound, eſpecially in the dominions of the church, on account of the bad police, and the prevalence of ſuperſtition, which permit and entice them to deceive the ignorant. They are ſcattered, though not in great numbers, through Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia; but their chief population is in the ſouth-eaſt parts of Europe, which ſeem to be the general rendezvous of the gypſy nation. At a moderate computation Europe contains more than ſeven hundred thouſand of theſe vagabonds. For near four centuries they have wandered through the world; and in every region, and among every people, whether barbarous or civilized, they have continued equally unchanged by the lapſe of time, the variation of climate, and the force of example. Their ſingular phyſiognomy and particular manners are the ſame in every country. Their ſwarthy complexion receives no darker ſhade from the burning ſun of Africa, nor any fairer tincture from the temperate climates of Europe; they contract no additional lazineſs in Spain, nor acquire any new induſtry in England; in Turkey they behold the moſque and the creſcent with equal indifference as they do the reformed and the catholic church in Europe. In the neighbourhood of civilized life they continue barbarous; and, beholding around them cities and ſettled inhabitants, they live in tents or holes in the earth, and wander from place to place as fugitives and vagabonds.

They are paſſionately fond of ornaments; in which however they conſult neither propriety nor conſiſtency; they will wear an old laced coat, while the reſt of their garments ſcarcely hang together. In Hungary and Tranſylvania, their ſummer habitations are tents; their winter ones holes ten or twelve feet deep in the earth, except ſuch as keep inns or exerciſe trades. They are fond of plate, particularly ſilver cups, which they bury under the earth for ſecurity. Their principal occupations are, ſmith's work, or trinkets, or wooden-ware, and horſe-dealing; and in Hungary and Tranſylvania they are executioners of criminals, flayers of dead beaſts, and waſhers of gold. The women deal in old clothes, proſtitution, wanton dances, and fortune-telling. Notwithſtanding theſe occupations, the majority of this people are lazy, beggars, and thieves. They bring up their children to their own profeſſions, and are very fond of them. They have few diſorders, except the meaſles and ſmall-pox, and weakneſs in their eyes, occaſioned by the ſmoke, and live to an advanced age, with a ſtrong attachment to life. Their phyſic is ſaffron in their ſoups, or bleeding.

Theſe people, however, appear to be diſtinguiſhed by different ſingularities in different countries. At leaſt in the following circumſtances the German gypſies differ widely from thoſe we commonly meet with in England. It is a great feaſt to them whenever they can procure a roaſt from cattle that died of any diſtemper. It is all one to them, whether it be carrion of a ſheep, hog, cow, or other beaſt, horſe-fleſh only excepted; they are ſo far from being diſguſted with it, that to eat their fill of ſuch a meal is to them the height of epicuriſm. When any one cenſures their taſte, or ſhews ſurpriſe at it, they anſwer, "The fleſh of a beaſt which God kills muſt be better than of one killed by the hand of man." They therefore take every opportunity of getting ſuch dainties. That they take carrion from a layſtall, as is affirmed of the gypſies in Hungary, is by no means certain, any more than that they eat horſe-fleſh. But if a beaſt out of an herd dies, and they find it before it becomes rotten and putrified; or if a farmer gives them notice of a cow dead; they proceed, without heſitation, to get poſſeſſion of this booty. Their favourite object is animals that have been deſtroyed by fire; therefore, whenever a conflagration has happened, either in

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town or country, the next day the gypſies, from every neighbouring quarter, aſſemble and draw the ſuffocated half-conſumed beaſts out of the aſhes. Men, women, and children, in troops, are extremely buſy, joyfully carrying the fleſh to their huts; they return ſeveral times, provide themſelves plentifully with this roaſt meat, and gluttonize as long as their noble fare laſts.

The gypſies have, at leaſt in Tranſylvania, a ſort of regular government, rather nominal than real or effective. They have their leaders, or chiefs, whom they diſtinguiſh by the Sclavonian title, Waywode. To this dignity every perſon is eligible who is of a family deſcended from a former waywode; but the preference is generally given to thoſe who have the beſt clothes and the moſt wealth; who are of a large ſtature, and not paſt the meridian of life.—Of religion, however, they have no ſenſe; though, with their uſual cunning and hypocriſy, they profeſs the eſtabliſhed faith of every country in which they live. They alſo ſpeak the languages of the reſpective countries, yet have a language of their own; from whence derived, authors differ. The only ſcience which they have attained is muſic. Their poetry is ungrammatical indecent rhyme. They are in general lively, uncommonly loquacious and chattering; fickle in the extreme, conſequently inconſtant in their purſuits; faithleſs to every body, even their own caſt; void of the leaſt emotion of gratitude, frequently rewarding benefits with the moſt inſidious malice. Fear makes them ſlaviſhly compliant when under ſubjection; but, having nothing to apprehend, like other timorous people, they are cruel. Deſire of revenge often cauſes them to take the moſt deſperate reſolutions. To ſuch a degree of violence is their fury ſometimes excited, that a mother has been known, in the exceſs of paſſion, to take a ſmall infant by the feet, and therewith ſtrike the object of her anger, when no other inſtrument has readily preſented itſelf. They are ſo addicted to drinking, as to ſacrifice what is moſt neceſſary to them, that they may feaſt their palate with ſpirits. They have, too, what one would little expect, an enormous ſhare of vanity, which ſhews itſelf in their fondneſs for fine clothes, and their gait and deportment when dreſſed in them. One might imagine, that this pride would have the good effect to render a gypſy cautious not to be guilty of ſuch crimes as ſubject him to public ſhame; but here comes in the levity of character, for he never looks to the right nor to the left in his tranſactions. In an hour's time he forgets that he is juſt untied from the whipping poſt. But their pride is grounded on mere idle conceit, as appears plainly from their making it a point of honour to abuſe their companions, and put on a terrible appearance, in the public market, where they are ſure to have many ſpectators; they cry out, make a violent noiſe, challenge their adverſary to fight, but very ſeldom any thing comes of it. Thus the gypſy ſeeks honour, of which his ideas coincide very little with thoſe of other people, and ſometimes deviate entirely from propriety.

Nothing can exceed the unreſtrained depravity of manners exiſting among theſe people; I allude particularly to the other ſex. Unchecked by any idea of ſhame, they give way to every deſire. The mother endeavours, by the moſt ſcandalous arts, to train up her daughter for an offering to ſenſuality; and this is ſcarcely grown up before ſhe becomes the ſeducer of others. Lazineſs is ſo prevalent among them, that, were they to ſubſiſt by their own labour only, they would hardly have bread for two of the ſeven days in the week. This indolence increaſes their propenſity to ſtealing and cheating, the common attendants on idleneſs. They ſeek to avail themſelves of every opportunity to ſatisfy their lawleſs deſires. Their univerſal bad character therefore for fickleneſs, infidelity, ingratitude, revenge, malice, rage, depravity, lazineſs, knavery, thieviſhneſs, and cunning, though not deficient in capacity and cleverneſs, render theſe people of no uſe in ſociety, except as ſoldiers to form marauding parties. Perſons in their company, and under their diſguiſe, have formed dangerous deſigns againſt cities and countries. They have been baniſhed from almoſt all civilized ſtates, in their turn, except Hungary and Tranſylvania,

and to little purpoſe. It has been thought, that, as Turkey would allow them toleration, it would be better for the European ſtates to take ſome ſteps for cultivating and civilizing them, and making them uſeful. But while they are inſenſible of religion, and ſtrongly attached to their own manners, it is to be feared the attempt would be impracticable. This appears from a very intelligent Hungarian lady's experience on the ſubject, communicated in a letter as follows: "There are a great number of them on my eſtates, but I have permitted two families in particular to eſtabliſh themſelves at the place of my own reſidence, under the expreſs condition that no others ſhall come here and join them. I took all poſſible pains to make them reaſonable creatures. I ſet the elder ones to work; the younger ones to tend the cattle. I obſerved that they were more fond of horſes than any thing elſe; for which reaſon I placed a gypſy under each groom. I had their children clothed, that none of them might be running about naked, according to their uſual practice. It appeared, however, that cuſtom was become nature with them. The old ones worked diligently ſo long as any body ſtood over them; the moment their back was turned, they all got together in a circle, their legs acroſs, facing the ſun, and chattered. Thus they cannot poſſibly earn more, indeed hardly ſo much, as would find them bread, although very cheap with us. Even in winter they cannot bear a hat on their heads, nor ſhoes on their feet. The boys run like wild things wherever they are ſent, either on foot or on horſeback; but they ſpoil horſes, unmercifully beat them on the head, jerk the bits in their mouths, ſo as to make them run down with blood. They cannot be brought by any means whatever to dreſs horſes. Clothe them as you will, they always ſell or loſe their clothes. In a word, one cannot but conſider them as void of reaſon; it is really ſhocking to ſee even well-grown children put whatever they find into their mouths, like infants before they can ſpeak; wherefore they eat every thing, even carrion, let it ſtink ever ſo much. Where a mortality happens amongſt the cattle, there theſe wretched beings are to be found in the greateſt numbers."

The origin of this people, as we have ſeen, has been generally believed to be Egyptian; and that belief is as old as their exiſtence in Europe. Thomaſius, Salmon the Engliſh geographer, and lately Signior Griſſelini, have endeavoured to prove it by ſatisfactory evidence. This theory, however, according to Grellman, is without foundation. The Egyptian deſcent of theſe people, he thinks, is not only deſtitute of proofs, but the moſt poſitive evidence is found to contradict it. Their language differs entirely from the Coptic; and their cuſtoms are very different from thoſe of the Egyptians. They are indeed to be found in Egypt; but they wander about there as ſtrangers, and form a diſtinct people, as in other countries. The expreſſions of Bellonius are ſtrong and deciſive: "No part of the world, I believe, is free from theſe banditti, wandering about in troops, whom we by miſtake call Egyptians and Bohemians. When we were at Cairo, and the villages bordering on the Nile, we found troops of theſe ſtrolling thieves ſitting under palm-trees; and they are eſteemed foreigners in Egypt as well as among us."

The Egyptian deſcent of the gypſies being rejected, he next endeavours to ſhew that they come from Hindoſtan. The chief baſis of his theory, however, is no other than that very dubious one, a ſimilarity of language. He adds a long vocabulary of the gypſy and the Hindoſtanic languages; in which, it muſt be confeſſed, many words are the ſame; but many are different. The compariſon of the two languages takes up above 30 pages; and Mr. Grellman thinks it eſtabliſhes his ſyſtem. But here, as in other ſuch compariſons, one is aſtoniſhed at the credulity of the comparers of orthography, which can have no connection in languages with which we are not perfectly familiar, even were both languages reduced to writing by their reſpective people: how much leſs, then, where one of the two languages is never reduced to writing, as is the caſe of the gypſy, but is ever blended with the language of the country where the clan reſides. This appears from the correſpondence

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of ſeveral words in all languages with the gypſy. Mr. Grellman acknowledges the two gypſy verſions of the Lord's Prayer, at different periods, differ ſo widely, that one would almoſt be inclined to doubt whether they were really the ſame language. We think we can diſcern a few words differently indeed written, but probably pronounced alike. Nor can we, in all the languages in which Chamberlayne gives the Lord's Prayer, perceive the leaſt reſemblance to the gypſy name of father, *Dade*, and *Dad*, except in the Welſh, *Taad*. In proſecuting his argument, Mr. Grellman does not inſiſt on the ſimilarity of colour between the two people, nor on the cowardice common to both, nor on the attachment of the Indians to tents, or letting their children go naked; all theſe being traits to be met with in other nations: but he dwells on the word *Pulgar*, the name of one of the firſt gypſy leaders, and of the Hindoſtanic god of marriage; alſo on the correſpondence between the travelling ſmiths in the two people, who carry two pair of bellows; the Indian's boy blows them in India, the wife or child of the gypſy in Europe: as if every travelling tinker, in every nation where tinkers travel, had not the ſame attendants. In laſcivious dances and chiromancy the two people agree; nor are theſe uncommon in other parts of the globe. The exceſſive loquacity of the two people is produced as ſimilar; as if no other nations in the world were loquacious. Fainter reſemblances are, a fondneſs for ſaffron, and the intermarrying only with their own people. The laſt poſition in his theory is, that the gypſies are of the loweſt claſs of Indians, namely, *Parias*, or, as they are called in Hindoſtan, *Suders*. He compares the manners of this claſs with thoſe of the gypſies, and enumerates many circumſtances in which they agree: ſome of the compariſons are frivolous, and prove nothing. As an inſtance of which we may take the following: "Gypſies are fond of being about horſes; the Suders in India likewiſe, for which reaſon they are commonly employed as horſe-keepers by the Europeans reſident in that country." This reaſoning does not prove that the gypſies are Suders, any more than that they are Arabians or Yorkſhire farmers.

The objections, however, to which this learned and induſtrious author's theory is liable, are ſuch as only ſhew it to be by no means ſatisfactory; but do not prove that it is wrong. It may poſſibly be right; and, upon this ſuppoſition, the cauſe of their emigration from their country, he conjectures, not without probability, to be the war of Timur Beg in India. In the years 1408 and 1409 this conqueror ravaged India; and the progreſs of his arms was attended with devaſtation and cruelty. All who made reſiſtance were deſtroyed; thoſe who fell into the enemy's hands were made ſlaves; of theſe very ſlaves 100,000 were put to death. As on this occaſion an univerſal panic took place, what could be more natural than that a great number of terrified inhabitants ſhould endeavour to ſave themſelves by flight?—In the laſt place, the author endeavours to trace the route by which the gypſies came from Hindoſtan to Europe: but here he juſtly acknowledges that all that can be ſaid on the ſubject is mere ſurmiſe; and, upon the whole, after peruſing all the preceding details, the reader will probably be of opinion that there ſtill hangs a cloud over the origin of this extraordinary race.

ADVICE TO YOUNG MIDSHIPMEN.

THE number of midſhipmen, like that of ſeveral other officers, is always in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip to which they belong. Thus a firſt-rate man of war has 24, and the inferior rates a ſuitable number in proportion. No perſon can be appointed lieutenant without having previouſly ſerved two years in the royal navy in this capacity, or in that of mate, beſides having been at leaſt four years in actual ſervice at ſea, either in mercant-ſhips or in the royal navy.

Midſhipman is accordingly the ſtation in which a young volunteer is trained in the ſeveral exerciſes neceſſary to attain a ſufficient knowledge of the machinery, movements, and military

operations, of a ſhip, to qualify him for a ſea-officer.

On his firſt entrance in a ſhip of war, every midſhipman has ſeveral diſadvantageous circumſtances to encounter. Theſe are partly occaſioned by the nature of the ſea-ſervice; and partly by the miſtaken prejudices of people in general reſpecting naval diſcipline, and the genius of ſailors and their officers. No character, in their opinion, is more excellent than that of the common ſailor, whom they generally ſuppoſe to be treated with great ſeverity by his officers, drawing a compariſon between them not very advantageous to the latter. The midſhipman uſually comes aboard tinctured with theſe prejudices, eſpecially when his education has been amongſt the higher rank of people; and, if the officers happen to anſwer his opinion, he conceives an early diſguſt to the ſervice, from a very partial and incompetent view of its operations. Blinded by theſe prepoſſeſſions, he is thrown off his guard, and very ſoon ſurpriſed to find, amongſt thoſe honeſt ſailors, a crew of abandoned miſcreants, ripe for any miſchief or villany. Perhaps, after a little obſervation, many of them will appear to him equally deſtitute of gratitude, ſhame, or juſtice, and only deterred from the commiſſion of crimes by the terror of ſevere puniſhment. He will diſcover that the pernicious examples of a few of the vileſt in a ſhip of war are too often apt to poiſon the principles of the greateſt number, eſpecially if the reins of diſcipline are too much relaxed, ſo as to foſter that idleneſs and diſſipation, which engender ſloth, diſeaſes, and an utter profligacy of manners. If the midſhipman on many occaſions is obliged to mix with theſe, particularly in the exerciſes of extending or reducing the ſails in the tops, he ought reſolutely to guard againſt this contagion, with which the morals of his inferiors may be infected. He ſhould, however, avail himſelf of their knowledge, and acquire their expertneſs in managing and fixing the ſails and rigging, and never ſuffer himſelf to be excelled by an inferior. He will probably find a virtue in almoſt every private ſailor which is entirely unknown to many of his officers; that virtue is emulation; which is not indeed mentioned amongſt their qualities by the gentlemen of *terra firma*, by whom their characters are often copiouſly deſcribed with very little judgment. There is hardly a common tar who is not envious of ſuperior ſkill in his fellows, and jealous on all occaſions to be outdone in what he conſiders as a branch of his duty: nor is he more fearful of the dreadful conſequences of whiſtling in a ſtorm, than of being ſtigmatiſed with the opprobrious epithet of *lubber*. Fortified againſt this ſcandal by a thorough knowledge of his buſineſs, the ſailor will ſometimes ſneer in private at the execution of orders, which to him appear aukward, improper, or unlike a ſeaman. Nay, he will perhaps be malicious enough to ſuppreſs his own judgment, and, by a punctual obedience to command, execute whatever is to be performed in a manner which he knows to be improper, in order to expoſe the perſon commanding to diſgrace and ridicule. Little ſkilled in the method of the ſchools, he conſiders the officer who cons his leſſon by rote as very ill qualified for his ſtation, becauſe particular ſituations might render it neceſſary for the ſaid officer to aſſiſt at putting his own orders in practice. An ignorance in this practical knowledge will therefore neceſſarily be thought an unpardonable deficiency by thoſe who are to follow his directions. Hence the midſhipman who aſſociates with theſe ſailors in the tops, till he has acquired a competent ſkill in the ſervice of extending or reducing the ſails, &c. will be often entertained with a number of ſcurrilous jeſts, at the expence of his ſuperiors. Hence alſo he will learn, that a timely application to thoſe exerciſes can only prevent him from appearing in the ſame deſpicable point of view, which muſt certainly be a cruel mortification to a man poſſeſſed of the ſmalleſt ſenſibility.

If the midſhipman is not employed in theſe ſervices, which are undoubtedly neceſſary to give him a clearer idea of the different parts of his occupation, a variety of other objects preſent themſelves to his attention. Without preſuming to dictate the ſtudies which are moſt eſſential to his improve-

ment, we could wiſh to recommend ſuch as are moſt ſuitable to the bent of his inclination. Aſtronomy, geometry, and mechanics, which are in the firſt rank of ſcience, are the materials which form the ſkilful pilot and the ſuperior mariner. The theory of navigation is entirely derived from the two former, and all the machinery and movements of a ſhip are founded upon the latter. The action of the wind upon the ſails, and the reſiſtance of the water at the ſtem, naturally dictate an enquiry into the property of ſolids and fluids; and the ſtate of the ſhip, floating on the water, ſeems to direct his application to the ſtudy of hydroſtatics, and the effects of gravity. A proficiency in theſe branches of ſcience will equally enlarge his views, with regard to the operations of naval war, as directed by the efforts of powder and the knowledge of projectiles. The moſt effectual method to excite his application to thoſe ſtudies, is, perhaps, by looking round the navy, to obſerve the characters of individuals. By this enquiry, he will probably diſcover, that the officer who is eminently ſkilled in the ſciences will command univerſal reſpect and approbation; and that whoever is ſatisfied with the deſpicable ambition of ſhining the hero of an aſſembly will be the object of univerſal contempt. The attention of the former will be engaged in thoſe ſtudies which are highly uſeful to himſelf in particular, and to the ſervice in general. The employment of the latter is to acquire thoſe ſuperficial accompliſhments that unbend the mind from every uſeful ſcience, emaſculate the judgment, and render the hero infinitely more dextrous at falling into his ſtation in the dance than in the line of battle.

Unleſs the midſhipman has an unconquerable averſon to the acquiſition of thoſe qualifications which are ſo eſſential to his improvement, he will very rarely want opportunities of making a progreſs therein. Every ſtep he advances in thoſe meritorious employments will facilitate his acceſſion to the next in order. If the dunces who are his officers or meſs-mates are rattling the dice, or roaring bad verſes, hiſſing on the flute, or ſcraping diſcord from the fiddle, his attention to more noble ſtudies will ſweeten the hours of relaxation. He ſhould recollect, that no example from fools ought to influence his conduct, or ſeduce him from that laudable ambition which his honour and advantage are equally concerned in the purſuit of.

OF COURAGE, FORTITUDE, AND FEAR.

FORTITUDE is a virtue or quality of the mind, generally conſidered the ſame with courage; though in a more accurate ſenſe they ſeem to be diſtinguiſhable. Courage may be a virtue, or a vice, according to circumſtances; fortitude is always a virtue. A contempt or neglect of danger, without regard to conſequences, may be called courage; and this ſome brutes have as well as men; in them it is the effect of natural inſtinct chiefly: in man it depends partly on habit, partly on ſtrength of nerves, and partly on want of conſideration. But fortitude is the virtue of a rational and conſiderate mind, and is founded in a ſenſe of honour and a regard to duty. There may be courage in fighting a duel, tho' that folly is very frequently the effect of cowardice: there may be courage in an act of piracy or robbery; but there can be no fortitude in perpetrating a crime. Fortitude implies a love of equity and of public good; for, as Plato and Cicero obſerve, courage exerted for a ſelfiſh purpoſe, or without a regard to juſtice, ought to be called audacity rather than fortitude.

Fortitude takes different names, according as it acts in oppoſition to different ſorts of evil; but ſome of thoſe names are applied with conſiderable latitude. With reſpect to danger in general, fortitude may be termed intrepidity; with reſpect to the dangers of war, valour; with reſpect to pain of body or diſtreſs of mind, patience; with reſpect to labour, activity; with reſpect to injury, forbearance; with reſpect to our condition in general, magnanimity.

Fortitude is very becoming in both ſexes; but courage is not ſo ſuitable to the female character: for in women, on ordinary occaſions of danger, a certain

tain degree of timidity is not unſeemly, becauſe it betokens gentleneſs of diſpoſition. Yet from thoſe of very high rank, from a queen or an empreſs, courage in emergencies of great public danger would be expected, and the want of it blamed; we ſhould overlook the ſex, and conſider the duties of the ſtation. In general, however, maſculine boldneſs in a woman is diſagreeable; the term *virago* conveys an offenſive idea. The female warriors of antiquity, whether real or fabulous, Camilla, Thaleſtris, and the whole community of Amazons, were unamiable perſonages. But female courage exerted in defence of a child, a huſband, or a near relation, would be true fortitude, and deſerve the higheſt encomiums.

The motives to fortitude are many and powerful. This virtue tends greatly to the happineſs of the individual, by giving compoſure and preſence of mind, and keeping the other paſſions in due ſubordination. To public good it is eſſential; for without it, the independence and liberty of nations would be impoſſible. It gives to a character that elevation which poets, orators, and hiſtorians, have in all ages vied with one another to celebrate. Nothing ſo effectually inſpires it as rational piety; the fear of God is the beſt ſecurity againſt every other fear. A true eſtimate of human life; its ſhortneſs and uncertainty; the numberleſs evils and temptations to which by a long continuance in this world we muſt unavoidably be expoſed; ought by no means to diſcourage or throw any gloom on our future proſpects: they ſhould teach us, that many things are more formidable than death; and that nothing is loſt, but much gained, when, by the appointment of Providence, a well-ſpent life is brought to an honourable concluſion.

Let it be conſidered too, that puſillanimity and fearfulneſs can never avail us any thing. On the contrary, they debaſe our nature, poiſon all our comforts, and make us deſpicable in the eyes of others; they darken our reaſon, diſconcert our ſchemes, enfeeble our efforts, extinguiſh our hopes, and add tenfold poignancy to all the evils of life. In battle, the brave ſoldier is in leſs danger than the coward; in leſs danger even of death and wounds, becauſe better prepared to defend himſelf; in far leſs danger of infelicity; and has before him the animating hope of victory and honour. So in life, the man of true fortitude is in leſs danger of diſappointment than others are, becauſe his underſtanding is clear, and his mind diſincumbered; he is prepared to meet calamity without the fear of ſinking under it; and he has before him the near proſpect of another life, in which they who patiently bear the evils of this will obtain a glorious reward.

Fear, when it gains an aſcendancy in the mind, renders life a burden. The object of fear is evil; and to be exempt from fear, or at leaſt not enſlaved to it, gives dignity to our nature, and invigorates all our faculties. Yet there are evils which we ought to fear. Thoſe that ariſe from ourſelves, or which it is in our power to prevent, it would be madneſs to deſpiſe, and audacity not to guard againſt. External evils, which we cannot prevent, or could not avoid without a breach of duty, it is manly and honourable to bear with fortitude. Out of many inſtances of the fatal effects of fear recorded in writers, the following is ſelected as one of the moſt ſingular. "George Grochantzy, a Polander, who had inliſted as a ſoldier in the ſervice of the King of Pruſſia, deſerted during the laſt war. A ſmall party was ſent in purſuit of him; and, when he leaſt expected it, they ſurpriſed him ſinging and dancing among a company of peaſants, who were got together at an inn, and were making merry. This event, ſo ſudden and unforeſeen, and at the ſame time ſo dreadful in its conſequences, ſtruck him in ſuch a manner, that, giving a great cry, he became at once altogether ſtupid and inſenſible, and was ſeized without the leaſt reſiſtance. They carried him away to Glocau, where he was brought before the council of war, and received ſentence as a deſerter. He ſuffered himſelf to be led and diſpoſed of at the will of thoſe about him, without uttering a word, or giving the leaſt ſign that he knew what had happened or would happen to him. He remained immovable as a ſtatue wherever he was placed, and was wholly paſſive with reſpect

ſpect to all that was done to him or about him. During all the time that he was in cuſtody, he neither ate, nor drank, nor ſlept, nor had any evacuation. Some of his comrades were ſent to ſee him; after that he was viſited by ſome officers of his corps and by ſome prieſts; but he ſtill continued in the ſame ſtate, without diſcovering the leaſt ſigns of ſenſibility. Promiſes, intreaties, and threatenings, were equally ineffectual. The phyſicians who were conſulted upon his caſe were of opinion, that he was in a ſtate of hopeleſs idiocy. It was at firſt ſuſpected, that thoſe appearances were feigned; but theſe ſuſpicions neceſſarily gave way, when it was known that he received no ſuſtenance, and that the involuntary functions of nature were in a great meaſure ſuſpended. After ſome time they knocked off his fetters, and left him at liberty to go whither he would. He received his liberty with the ſame inſenſibility that he had ſhewn upon other occaſions: he remained fixed and immovable; his eyes turned wildly here and there without taking cognizance of any object, and the muſcles of his face were fallen and fixed like thoſe of a dead body. Being left to himſelf, he paſſed twenty days in this condition, without eating, drinking, or any evacuation, and died on the twentieth day. He had been ſometimes heard to fetch deep ſighs; and once he ruſhed with great violence on a ſoldier who had a mug of liquor in his hand, forced the mug from him, drank the liquor with great eagerneſs, and let the mug drop to the ground."

To turn from the ſerious to the ludicrous effects of fear, the following inſtance of the latter ſort, quoted from a French author by Mr. Andrews in his volume of anecdotes, ſhews upon what ſlight occaſions this paſſion may be ſometimes excited in a very high degree, even in perſons the moſt unlikely to entertain ſuch a gueſt. "Charles Guſtavus (the ſucceſſor of Chriſtina of Sweden) was beſieging Prague, when a boor of a moſt extraordinary viſage deſired admittance to his tent; and, being allowed entrance, offered, by way of amuſing the king, to devour a whole hog of one hundred weight in his preſence. The old general Konigſmarc, who ſtood by the king's ſide, and who, ſoldier as he was, had not got rid of the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to his royal maſter, that the peaſant ought to be burnt as a ſorcerer. 'Sir,' ſaid the fellow, irritated at the remark, 'if your majeſty will but make that old gentleman take off his ſword and his ſpurs, I will eat him immediately, before I begin the hog.' General Konigſmarc (who had, at the head of a body of Swedes, performed wonders againſt the Auſtrians, and who was looked upon as one of the braveſt men of the age) could not ſtand this propoſal, eſpecially as it was accompanied by a moſt hideous and preternatural expanſion of the frightful peaſant's jaws. Without uttering a word, the veteran ſuddenly turned round, ran out of the tent, and thought not himſelf ſafe till he had arrived at his quarters; where he remained above twenty-four hours locked up ſecurely, before he had got rid of the panic which had ſo ſeverely affected him."

The influence of fear, both in occaſioning and aggravating diſeaſes, is alſo very great. No man ought to be blamed for a decent concern about life; but too great a deſire to preſerve it is often the cauſe of loſing it. Fear and anxiety, by depreſſing the ſpirits, not only diſpoſe us to diſeaſes, but often render thoſe diſeaſes fatal which an undaunted mind would overcome. Sudden fear has generally violent effects. Epileptic fits, and other convulſive diſorders, are often occaſioned by it. Hence the danger of that practice, ſo common among young people of frightening one another. Many have loſt their lives, and others have been rendered miſerable, by frolics of this kind. It is dangerous to tamper with the human paſſions. The mind may eaſily be thrown into ſuch diſorder as never again to act with regularity.

In acute diſeaſes frights have evidently killed many, by the agitation into which they have thrown the ſpirits, already too much diſordered. We have alſo accounts of perſons abſolutely killed by terrors when in perfect health at the time of receiving the ſhock from them; and people ordered to be executed, but with private orders for a reprieve, have expired at the block without a wound.

CAPTURE

CAPTURE OF TOBAGO.

TOBAGO is one of the Caribbee iſlands in the American ocean, ſituate twenty miles north-eaſt of the iſland of Trinity, and one hundred and twenty miles ſouth of the iſland of Barbadoes; being fifty-two miles long and twelve broad. It was originally planted by the Engliſh, who were driven from it by the Caribbees on the neighbouring continent. Some time after this it was ſeized by the French, but formally ceded to the Engliſh by the peace of 1763, who built a handſome town upon it, called Scarborough. It is a very deſirable and fruitful iſland, producing large quantities of ſugar and every thing elſe that the Caribbee iſlands produce. During the American war, it was taken from us by the French; and was retaken by General Cuyler, and Admiral Sir John Laforey, in April 1793, as deſcribed at length in our laſt Magazine, and to which may be added the following particulars:

The diſpoſition of attack was ordered by the general to take place in the night. The two light companies of the 9th and 60th regiments, under the command of Major Gordon, (who gallantly requeſted permiſſion to leave the command of his own regiment to lead the light infantry,) were to be ſupported by the two grenadier companies under the command of Major Bailey, and the fourth battalion of the 6th regiment under the command of Captain de Viſme; the reſerve of a few marines under the command of Major Bright; the artillery to remain with their guns. It was now about three o'clock in the morning; and, as the only chance of ſucceſs was ſtorming the works in the dark, Major Gordon began the attack. The fort began a very warm fire of grape-ſhot, but nothing could withſtand the bravery and coolneſs of the Britiſh troops; they never attempted to fire a ſhot, but carried every thing with their bayonets. They got into the ditch of the fort, where they found the rampart high and perpendicular, whereas it had been repreſented to General Cuyler, that they could run up the ramparts of the fort. The men were very much fatigued, and the enemy were keeping up a tremendous fire of grape-ſhot. After a halt of a few minutes, Major Gordon called out, "God ſave the king, follow me;" which was anſwered by the men with three cheers, and up he went, and a corporal followed, and they pulled up the colours, and about a dozen men by their firelocks. The firſt four were wounded and fell down again, but there were ſoon about twenty men more up, lying on the ſlope of the parapet along-ſide of him, cloſe to the guns (eighteen-pounders) which were firing over them. As ſoon as they found a ſufficient number of men up, they charged into the battery, drove every man from the guns, and formed till they were joined by all the reſt of the men, and then, for the firſt time, began to fire upon the French, who were drawn up in front of their barracks, and firing from all quarters of the inner ſquare. As ſoon as Major Gordon found all his men up, he ordered the firing to ceaſe, and to charge. In a few minutes M. Montel, the governor of the iſland, called for quarter, and delivered up his ſword. To the honour of the Britiſh ſoldiers be it told, that, after their commanding officer called out that the governor had ſurrendered, there was not a perſon wounded. They were occupied until daylight ſecuring priſoners, who were more than double the number of the aſſailants. When daylight appeared, the general joy on ſeeing the Britiſh colours flying over thoſe of the French is not eaſily to be deſcribed.

Monſ. Montel, the French Governor, by his letter to M. Rochambeau, with the account of the capture of the iſland, ſeems perfectly ſenſible of the bravery and generoſity of the Britiſh troops; which he expreſſed in the following manner:

'General Cuyler was wounded at
'the commencement of the attack:
'Major Gordon, who took me, be-
'haved, as did his troops, with a va-
'lour and generoſity above all praiſe.
'Both the general and his officers con-
'tinue to treat us with the ſame gene-
'roſity.'

POETRY.

SELECT POETRY.

THE BATTLE.

Abſtracted from "*Songs of the aboriginal Bards*," by the Rev. G. RICHARDS.

AMID the darkly-rolling ſtorms,
That gird Helvellin's craggy ſides,
With aſpects fierce, and warrior ſtrides,
The painted Britons' giant forms
Ruſh in wild tumult to the vale below;
With fiery rage their eyeballs glow!
Their rude arms claſh with hideous clang;
Torches wildly hurl'd in air
Flaſh round the rocks a direful glare:
Frighted Skiddaw heard from far
The rattling of the ſcythed car;
Wide Windermere with mountain echoes rang,
And Keſwick's ſilent lake ſhook with the ſhout of war.
High on the dark cliff's beetling brow,
Which caſts its broad embrowning ſhade
Acroſs the rugged dell below,
The Bards, in radiant rows diſplay'd,
To the fierce troops, that wildly paſs beneath,
Their kindling numbers breathe.

Gallant warriors, ſo your ſires,
In days of yore, by Deva's ſtream,
Rous'd to fury by our lyres,
Darted battle's vivid gleam.
The faulchions, now that glittering riſe,
Shone at your fathers' ſinewy thighs;
Each axe has cleft a valiant foe;
Each ſpear has laid a Roman low,
And all thoſe ſcythes through legions flew,
Drinking life's empurpled dew.

Fir'd by muſic's magic ſway,
Madly burſts the Britiſh band:
Aghaſt, unnerv'd, and fix'd in wan diſmay,
With curdling blood, the ſpell-bound Romans ſtand.
Each on the other looks with ſpeechleſs gaze;
Then views around the dying and the ſlain,
Sadly revolves the palm of happier days,
And thinks with keen regret on Zama's plain.
But ſoon the ſouls, that fir'd the Britons, fall:
Then on their baſely-turning foes
The firmly kindled legions roſe,
And rear'd the nervy arm, that tam'd this nether ball.

The Bards perceiv'd the yielding throng,
And quick reſum'd their magic ſong,
The Britons hear;
They bluſh; they turn; they fight; prevail;
And thoſe, whoſe eagle, high diſplay'd,
Shadow'd this ſublunary ſphere,
And made the kingdoms of the world grow pale,
Now, trembling, flee before a Britiſh ſpear,
And dew their mails for ſhame with many a burning fear.

JACK IN HIS ELEMENT.

By Mr. DIBDIN.

1.

BOLD Jack the ſailor here I come;—
Pray how d'ye like my nib;
My trowſers wide, and trampers rum;
My nab and flowing jib.
I ſails the ſeas from end to end,
And leads a jovial life;
In ev'ry meſs I finds a friend,
In every port a wife.

2.

I've herd 'em talk of conſtancy,
Of grief and ſuch-like fun:
I've conſtant been to ten, cries I,
But never mourn'd for one.
The flowing ſails we tars unbend;
And leads a jovial life;
In ev'ry meſs we finds a friend,
In ev'ry port a wife.

3.

I've a ſpanking wife at Portſmouth gates,
A pigmy at Goree;
I've an orange tawney up the Straits,
A black at St. Lucie;
Thus, whatſomdever courſe I bend,
I leads a jovial life;
In ev'ry meſs I finds a friend,
In ev'ry port a wife.

4.

Will Gaſt by death was ta'en aback;
I came to bring the news:
Poll whimper'd ſore, but what did Jack?
He ſtood in William's ſhoes.
She cut, I chac'd, but in the end
She lov'd me as her life,
And ſo ſhe got an honeſt friend,
And I a loving wife.

5.

Thus be we ſailors all the go,
On fortune's ſea we rub;
We works, and loves, and fights the foe,
And drinks the gen'rous bub;
Storms that the maſts to ſplinters rend
Can't ſhake our jovial life;
In ev'ry meſs we finds a friend,
In ev'ry port a wife.

BOADICEA, QUEEN of the BRITONS.

WHEN the Britiſh warrior queen,
Bleeding from the Roman rods,
Sought, with an indignant mein,
Counſel of her country's gods,
Sage beneath a ſpreading oak
Sat the Druid hoary chief,
Ev'ry burning word he ſpoke
Full of rage and full of grief:
Princeſs! if our aged eyes
Weep upon thy matchleſs wrongs,
'Tis becauſe reſentment ties
All the terrors of our tongues.
Rome ſhall periſh—write that word
In the blood that ſhe has ſpilt;
Periſh hopeleſs and abhorr'd,
Deep in ruin as in guilt.
Rome, for empire far renown'd,
Tramples on a thouſand ſtates;
Soon her pride ſhall kiſs the ground—
Hark! the Gaul is at her gates.
Other Romans ſhall ariſe,
Heedleſs of a ſoldier's name,
Sounds, not arms, ſhall win the prize,
Harmony the path to fame.
Then the progeny that ſprings
From the foreſts of our land,
Arm'd with thunder, clad with wings,
Shall a wider world command.
Regions Cæſar never knew
Thy poſterity ſhall ſway,
Where his eagles never flew,
None invincible as they.
Such the bard's prophetic words,
Pregnant with celeſtial fire,
Bending as he ſwept the chords
Of his ſweet but awful lyre.
She, with all a monarch's pride,
Felt them in her boſom glow,
Ruſh'd to battle, fought and died,
Dying hurl'd them at the foe.

On SLAVERY and the SLAVE TRADE.

BUT ah! what wiſh can proſper, or what pray'r,
For merchants rich in cargoes of deſpair,
Who drive a loathſome traffic, gage and ſpan,
And buy the muſcles and the bones of man?
The tender ties of father, huſband, friend,
All bonds of nature, in that moment end,
And each endures, while yet he draws his breath,
A ſtroke as fatal as the ſcythe of death.
The ſable warrior frantic with regret
Of her he loves, and never can forget,
Loſes in tears the far-receding ſhore,
But not the thought that they muſt meet no more!
Depriv'd of her and freedom at a blow,
What has he left that he can yet forego?
Yes, to deep ſadneſs ſullenly reſign'd,
He feels his body's bondage in his mind;
Puts off his gen'rous nature; and, to ſuit
His manners with his fate, puts on the brute.
Oh! moſt degrading of all ills that wait
On man, a mourner in his beſt eſtate!
All other ſorrows virtue may endure,
And find ſubmiſſion more than half a cure;
Grief is itſelf a medicine, and beſtow'd
T'improve the fortitude that bears the load;
To teach the wand'rer, as his woes increaſe,
The path of wiſdom, all whoſe paths are peace.
But ſlavery!—Virtue dreads it as her grave;
Patience itſelf is meanneſs in a ſlave:
Or, if the will and ſovereignty of God
Bid ſuffer it a while and kiſs the rod,
Wait for the dawning of a brighter day,
And ſnap the chain the moment when you may.
Nature imprints upon whate'er we ſee,
That has a heart and life in it, Be free!
The beaſts are charter'd;—neither age nor force
Can quell the love of freedom in a horſe:
He breaks the cord that held him at the rack,
And, conſcious of an unincumber'd back,
Snuffs up the morning air, forgets the rein,
Looſe flies his forelock and his ample mane;
Reſponſive to the diſtant neigh he neighs,
Nor ſtops till, overleaping all delays,
He finds the paſture where his fellows graze.

On KING ARTHUR's ROUND TABLE at WINCHESTER.

WHERE Venta's Norman caſtle ſtill appears
It's rafter'd hall, that o'er the graſſy foſs.
And ſcatter'd flinty fragments, clad in moſs,
On yonder ſteep, in naked ſtate appears,
High-hung remains, the pride of warlike years,
Old Arthur's Board: on the capacious round
Some Britiſh pen has ſketch'd the names renown'd,
In marks obſcure, of his immortal peers.
Though join'd by magic ſkill, with many a rhime,
The Druid-frame, unhonour'd, falls a prey
To the ſlow vengeance of the wiſard Time,
And fade the Britiſh characters away:
Yet Spencer's page, that chants in verſe ſublime
Thoſe chiefs, ſhall live unconſcious of decay.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN NEWS.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

WHITEHALL, *July* 2.

Copy of a Letter from Brigadier-general Ogilvie to the Rt. Hon. Henry Dundas, one of his Majeſty's principal Secretaries of State, dated Iſland of St. Pierre, May 18, 1793. *Received June* 30.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to acquaint you, that the Iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon ſurrendered at diſcretion to his majeſty's forces on the 14th inſtant.

In obedience to his majeſty's commands, ſignified to me in your letter of the 15th of February, having conſulted, at Halifax, with Capt. Affleck, commanding his majeſty's ſhip Alligator, I embarked, without loſs of time, for the attack of theſe iſlands with a detachment of the royal artillery, and 310 rank and file, with officers and non-commiſſioned officers in proportion, of the 4th and 65th regiments, on-board that ſhip, a king's ſchooner, and three tranſports, and ſailed on the 7th inſtant.

On the 14th, about day-break, we made the iſland of St. Pierre; and, Capt. Affleck having made a diſpoſition to proceed by the channel of Miquelon, a convenient place in that ſtrait for debarking the troops offering, and our information from different quarters (however imperfect) giving us reaſon to ſuppoſe that a French frigate was in the harbour, and of the further defences of which we had not been able to gain any real intelligence, I propoſed to Captain Affleck to land the troops, that an attack by ſea and land might be made at the ſame time, with which he perfectly coincided; and accordingly I landed, with great part of the troops, in the Auce à Savoyard, about five miles to the weſtward of the town, and proceeded towards it, ſending a ſummons from Capt. Affleck and myſelf to the commandant for the immediate ſurrender of the iſland; when anſwer being returned, demanding terms of capitulation, they were decidedly refuſed. The troops continued their march: and having reached, without oppoſition, the heights above the town, the Alligator at the ſame time appearing in ſight of the harbour, the commandant, M. Danſville, (who from circumſtances was under the direction of the commune of the iſland,) ſurrendered the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon at diſcretion, and poſſeſſion was immediately taken of the battery and places of defence near the town and harbour. The garriſon conſiſted of between 80 and 100 men only, but there were upwards of 500 French fiſhermen (excluſive of the inhabitants) in the town, who, had they been prepared and well armed, might have made great oppoſition. They had likewiſe begun to put in a ſtate of defence the battery of eight 26-pounders, which effectually defended the harbour.

If, from fortunate events, no opportunity offered for the troops to diſtinguiſh themſelves, it would be doing the greateſt injuſtice both to officers and men, if I did not, in the ſtrongeſt terms, mention their good conduct, diſcipline, and regularity, the ſlighteſt depredation not having been committed on any of the inhabitants by the troops I have the honour to command, in a place taken in the manner above ſtated.—I incloſe a return of the ordnance and military ſtores taken on the iſland, and have the honour to be your obedient humble ſervant,

JAS. OGILVIE, Brig. Gen.

WHITEHALL, *July* 13

This morning one of his majeſty's meſſengers arrived with a diſpatch from Colonel Sir James Murray, Bart. adjutant general to the forces under the command of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, of which the following is a copy.

SIR, ESTREUX, *July* 10, 1793.

I have the honour to acquaint you, that the governor of Condé has this day conſented to ſurrender that place to the Imperial forces, under the command of the Prince of Wirtemberg, by whom it has been blockaded for ſome time paſt.

The Auſtrian troops are to be put in immediate poſſeſſion of the detached works, and of one of the gates of the town (that leading to Tournay). The garriſon is to ſurrender as priſoners of war, and to march out upon the 13th.

This is a conqueſt of the utmoſt importance; Condé being one of the ſtrongeſt places of this frontier, requiring but a ſmall garriſon for its defence, commanding the navigation of the Scheldt, and facilitating any future operation.

I have the honour to be, with the greateſt reſpect, Sir, your moſt obedient humble ſervant,

JAMES MURRAY.

WHITEHALL, *July* 22.

Yeſterday afternoon a meſſenger arrived from the Britiſh head-quarters before Valenciennes, with diſpatches from his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, ſtating, that Valenciennes, if attacked by ſtorm, might be carried in two days, but, if the regular approaches were followed out, it might ſtand another month. A cabinet-council was held on this buſineſs, the reſult of which remains a perfect ſecret.

Col. Forbes has received a ſhot from the fortreſs of Valenciennes, by which unfortunate accident he has loſt one of his eyes, and his face is otherwiſe greatly diſfigured.

On the 13th, agreeable to articles of ſurrender, the garriſon of Condé marched out of the town, and laid down their arms. It conſiſted of four thouſand and nine men, amongſt whom were three regiments of the line, amounting to two thouſand ſeven hundred men: the reſt were national guards, the ſtrongeſt battalions of whom conſiſted of 440 men.

The troops of the line in general, and a few of the national guards, looked well; but the reſt cut a miſerable figure. They had been living for ſome time on eleven ounces of bread, and two of horſe-fleſh, and ſome rice, per diem. A conſiderable quantity of rice was ſtill remaining, but bread had very much failed. They carried out with them about one hundred horſes in good condition.

One hundred and three pieces of ordnance were found in the place, but the quantity of ammunition was inconſiderable.

The firing from Valenciennes ceaſed on a ſudden this morning, and a flag of truce came out from the town. It was the general conjecture and expectation, that the French were at length going to ſurrender. The occaſion was, however, to conduct a lady, Madame Metiour, to our camp, who wiſhed to leave the place, and wanted to go to Paris. She was readily received, but the latter part of her requeſt cannot at preſent be complied with. She has her choice of Mons, Condé, or Bruſſels, for her place of reſidence.

The preſent operations of the ſiege are very much confined to mining, from which the greateſt advantages are expected. The ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities gave the captain of the mines an opportunity of walking to the covered way, and aſcertaining the progreſs, length, and depth, of his mine. During the truce, likewiſe, ſeveral of our officers had an opportunity of converſing with ſome of thoſe of the troops of the line who came without the garriſon. They expreſſed their wiſhes to ſurrender, and indeed to come over entirely, to the king's party; but they were deterred by the conſideration of their wives and families, who were in Valenciennes, and would be at the mercy of the governor.

There are frequent ſkirmiſhes between our advanced poſts and thoſe of the enemy, in all of which we were ſucceſsful.—The French attacked, four days ago, an Auſtrian poſt, near Maubeuge, in which affair they had 100 taken priſoners, and a much greater number killed and wounded. The Auſtrians had only between 20 and 30 killed and wounded. Since the 10th, only one Britiſh has been killed, and ſeven have been wounded, in the trenches.

The loſs of the Auſtrians, Hanoverians, and Heſſians, has been ſomewhat proportionably greater, particularly laſt night, when near fifty were killed and wounded. A very heavy cannonade is at preſent kept up on both ſides.

JULY 12. The Prince of Cobourg, being with a number of officers, and a body of cavalry, on a reconnoitring party, between Eſcaillon and Bouchain, fell in with 200 horſes bridled and ſaddled, without being mounted; the prince immediately gave directions to his cavalry to take poſſeſſion of them, when 40 men on horſeback, to whom the care of theſe horſes had been entruſted, whilſt their riders were diſperſed in the different villages, ſuddenly made their appearance. The Auſtrian cavalry immediately attacked them, cut them to pieces, and took poſſeſſion of the 200 horſes.

Advices from Liſbon mention a recent ſhock of an earthquake at Oporto, and ſeveral other places in that kingdom, immediately after which the weather became remarkably cold.

Some travellers lately arrived from Maldonado and Monteviedo, poſſeſſions belonging to the Spaniards in South America, relate a ſingular phenomenon which took place in the river de la Plata in the month of April laſt. The waters of the river were forced, by a moſt impetuous ſtorm of wind, to the diſtance of ten leagues, ſo that the neighbouring plains were entirely inundated, and the bed of the river left dry. Ships which had been ſunk in the river for upwards of thirty years were uncovered; and among others an Engliſh veſſel, which was caſt away in the year 1762. Several perſons repaired to the bed of the river, on which they could walk about without wetting their feet, and returned loaded with ſilver and other riches, which had been long buried under

under the water. This phenomenon, which may be ranked among the grand revolutions of nature, continued three days; at the end of which the wind ceaſed, and the water returned with great violence to its natural bed.

AWFUL DEATH of Mr. MUNRO.

[The unfortunate young Gentleman, whoſe melancholy fate is particularly narratived in the following letter, was the ſon of the gallant Sir Hector Munro, K. B.—The letter is dated on-board the Shaw Ardaſier country ſhip, off Saugur Iſland, Dec. 23, 1792,—is addreſſed to a gentleman in Calcutta, and a copy of it was brought by the laſt ſhips from India.]

To deſcribe the awful, horrid, and lamentable, accident I have been an eye-witneſs of, is impoſſible. Yeſterday morning, Mr. Downey, of the company's troops, Lieutenant Pyefinch, and poor Mr. Munro, and I, went on ſhore, on Saugur Iſland, to ſhoot deer; we ſaw innumerable tracks of tygers and deer, but ſtill we were induced to purſue our ſport, and did the whole day; about half paſt three we ſat down on the edge of the jungle to eat ſome cold meat ſent us from the ſhip, and had juſt commenced our meal, when Mr. Pyefinch and a black ſervant told us there was a fine deer within ſix yards of us: Mr. Downey and I immediately jumped up to take our guns —mine was the neareſt, and I had but juſt laid hold of it, when I heard a roar like thunder, and ſaw an immenſe royal tyger ſpring on the unfortunate Munro, who was ſetting down; in a moment his head was in the beaſt's mouth, and he ruſhed into the jungle with him, with as much eaſe as I could lift a kitten, tearing him through the thickeſt buſhes and trees—every thing yielding to his monſtrous ſtrength. The agonies of horror, regret, and, I muſt ſay, fear (for there were two tygers, a male and female), ruſhed on me at once; the only effort I could make was to fire at him, though the poor youth was ſtill in his mouth. I relied partly on Providence, partly on my own aim, and fired a muſquet. I ſaw the tyger ſtagger and agitated, and I cried out ſo immediately. Mr. Downey then fired two ſhots, and I one more. We retired from the jungle, and a few minutes after Mr. Munro came up to us, all over blood, and fell; we took him on our backs to the boat, and got every medical aſſiſtance for him from the Valentine Indiaman, which lay at anchor near the iſland, but in vain. He lived twenty-four hours in the extreme of torture; his head and ſkull were all torn and broke to pieces, and he was wounded by the beaſt's claws all over his neck and ſhoulders; but it was better to take him away, though irrecoverable, than leave him to be devoured, limb by limb. We have juſt read the funeral ſervice over his body, and committed it to the deep.—He was an amiable and promiſing youth.

I muſt obſerve, there was a large fire blazing cloſe to us, compoſed of ten or a dozen of whole trees: I made it myſelf on purpoſe to keep the tygers off, as I had always heard it would. There were eight or ten of the natives about us; many ſhot had been fired at the place, and much noiſe and laughing at the time, but this ferocious animal diſregarded all.

The human mind cannot form an idea of the ſcene; it turned my very ſoul within me. The beaſt was about four and a half feet high, and nine long. His head appeared as large as an ox's, his eyes darted fire; and his roar, when he firſt ſeized his prey, will never be out of my recollection. We had ſcarcely puſhed our boat from that curſed ſhore, when the tygreſs made her appearance, raging mad almoſt, and remained on the ſand as long as the diſtance would allow me to ſee her.

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

July 8.

THE preliminary propoſals for peace, lately made to our cabinet by Le Brun, the miniſter, and which accompanied his letter to Lord Grenville, were, "That, if England would become the mediator for general peace, guarantee to the French the poſſeſſion of Old France, and a free choice of their own form of government, they would evacuate Savoy, and all other conqueſts; and, granting a general amneſty, reſtore to the emigrant nobles all their property excepting their feudal rights; re-ſtabliſh forty biſhoprics, with a proportionate number of parochial clergy with proper ſalaries; ſecure to the royal family of France 600,000l. a-year; and, if they ſhould chuſe to reſide in England, a greater income; and give up a certain proportion of territory to Great-Britain."—The heads of the anſwer of our cabinet are ſaid to be, "That we could not acknowledge the preſent convention to be a fair repreſentation of the French nation, or ſuch a government as we could now treat with: that, if they afterwards

afterwards eſtabliſh ſuch a government as ſhall not appear dangerous to us and our allies, we ſhall then be willing to enter into negociation; but, till then, can only communicate through the generals of the armies."

The following powers are now at war with France: — His Britannic Majeſty; the Emperor of Germany; Empreſs of Ruſſia; Archduke of Auſtria; Kings of Pruſſia, Spain, and Sardinia; Queen of Portugal; Republics of Holland, Hamburgh, and Lubec; Electors of Mentz and Treves; the Duke of Brunſwic Lunenbourg; Prince of Heſſe Caſſel; Duke of Deux Ponts; Prince Biſhop of Liege; and the Pope! Strange that ſuch a vaſt combination of force, unexampled in the annals of mankind, cannot ſtrike that terror into France which England alone uſed to do.

Lord Macartney's reception at Pekin is ſaid to be certain. Before the Indiamen which are lately arrived left Canton, an anſwer to that effect had been recived from the emperor, in conſequence of a requiſition from the Eaſt-India Company. When the requiſition was made, the emperor was given to underſtand, that Lord Macartney was attended by a ſhip laden with preſents for his imperial majeſty.

JULY 9. A little before one o'clock in the morning the inhabitants of Deptford Dock-yard and its vicinity were greatly alarmed by the ringing of the bells about the yard as a ſignal of danger. It was diſcovered that government's ſtorehouſes for paint were on fire, which ſoon burſt forth with great fury, and it was feared that it would communicate to the ſhipping, the Charlotte, a royal yacht, being at no conſiderable diſtance.—The flames ſpread with ſuch rapidity, that, notwithſtanding all the aſſiſtance of the dock engines, the whole of the paint ſtorehouſes were burnt down, and ſome buildings behind. The fire was not got under till five o'clock, and the damage done is to a large amount.

At Blackwall a curious circumſtance occurred on the 12th. A deſerter from the Scotch Greys, who had been abſent from the regiment for ſome time, attended and threw himſelf upon the mercy of the commander, entreating that, whatever might be his puniſhment for deſertion, he might have liberty to go with the regiment. The officers were ſo highly pleaſed with the ſpirit of the man, that they forgave him, ordered him his horſe, arms, and accoutrements, and he was ſuffered to embark with the reſt.

JULY 16. Benjamin Williams was brought before the magiſtrates at the public office, Bow-ſtreet, charged with having forcibly, and againſt her will, committed a rape on the body of Mary Corbett, a child of twelve years of age. He was fully committed for trial.—The child communicated the circumſtances of this horrid tranſaction to her father; which were, that the priſoner, who is uncle to the girl, took her to be an aſſiſtant to his wife, in whoſe abſence this monſter in human ſhape decoyed the girl into his bed-room, where, after aſking her a number of indecent queſtions, he took her forcibly into bed to him, where he kept her all night, and where, ſhocking to relate, he accompliſhed his villainous deſign.

An awful and ſingular circumſtance occurred lately at Chelmsford gaol. An aged man of the name of Millar, confined for debt, being about to take out a ſuperſedeas of the action, and apprehenſive of detainers, he cauſed an article to be inſerted in the papers, ſtating his death; the ſtratagem had the deſired effect, and his ſuperſedeas was obtained; the order arrived for his diſcharge; but, as he was was preparing to leave the gaol, he died.

GRAND FLEET.

The Grand Fleet, which ſailed from St. Helen's on Sunday, the 14th of July, conſiſted of the following ſhips:

Ships.	*Guns.*	*Commanders.*
Q. Charlotte	100	Admiral Earl HOWE, Capt. Sir R. Curtis, ——H. C. Chriſtian, ——John Hunter.
Rl. Sovereign	100	Vice-Adm. GRAVES Capt. Nicholls.
Royal George	100	Vice-Ad. Sir A. HOOD Capt. Domett.
Cumberland	74	Rear-Ad. M'BRIDE, Capt. Louis.
Edgar	74	Bertie.
Brunſwick	74	J. Harvey.
Majeſtic	74	Cotton.
Ganges	74	Molloy.
Suffolk	74	Rainier.
Audacious	74	W. Parker.
Ramilies	74	H. Harvey.
Montagu	74	James Montague.
Bellerophon	74	Paſley.
Veteran	64	Nugent.
Sceptre	64	Dacres.
Latona	38	Thornborough.
Phaeton	38	Sir A. S. Douglas.
Inconſtant	36	Montgomery.
Niger	32	Monſon.
Venus	32	Faulknor.
Lapwing	28	Hon. C. Curzon.
Pegaſus	28	Barlow.
Ferret	12	Nowell.
Incendiary	14	Hope.

ENCAMPMENTS.

ENCAMPMENTS.

HARWICH, *July* 20.

This ſmall but beautiful camp is now completely formed; after pitching, ſtriking, and re-pitching, the tents and marquees, the line is at length fixed. The camp conſiſts of three regiments, viz.

On the right, the Weſt Kent, Colonel Duke of Dorſet.

The centre, the Bedfordſhire, Colonel Lord Oſſory.

On the left, the Eaſt Suffolk, Colonel Goater.

The poſition choſen is on the right of the road leading into Harwich, about half a mile from the town, on an elevated dry ſpot; the main ocean in front, within twenty yards of the quarter-guard tents; in the rear an arm of the ſea, that joins the Manninghee and Ipſwich rivers; on the left the town of Harwich; forming together the moſt charming picturesque ſcene that can poſſibly be imagined.

General Tonyn commands, and is very indefatigable in his attention to the regularity and good order of the camp; nor are the field-officers of the regiments behind-hand with him in their zeal to render their reſpective corps diſtinguiſhable for correct military diſcipline.

WATERDOWN.

General commander in chief, His Grace the Duke of Richmond.

Horſe artillery, Captain Lawſon.

Park ditto, Colonel Drummond.

Right Wing.

Lieutenant-General Sir William Howe, commander.

First Brigade.

Six pieces of cannon.

The Eaſt Norfolk militia, Colonel Ward.

The Berks, Colonel Lord Rodney.

The Weſt Eſſex, Sir William Smyth.

Third Brigade.

Six pieces of cannon.

The Oxford militia, Lord Charles Spencer.

The South Devon, Colonel Sir Jn. Rolle.

The Weſtminſter, Colonel Cawthorne.

Left Wing.

Major-General Sir William Meadows, commander.

Fourth Brigade.

The Weſt Suffolk, Earl Euſton.

The Dorſet, Major Pitt.

The Suſſex, Lieutenant-colonel Blunt.

Six pieces of cannon.

Second Brigade.

The North Hants, Colonel Sloane.

The North Devon, Lord Forteſcue.

The Eaſt Middleſex, Colonel Tuſſnell.

Six pieces of cannon.

The Duke of Richmond has been on horſeback before four o'clock every morning of the laſt week, except Saturday, reviewing the different corps. Theſe, in general, have anſwered his expectations; and no pains are ſpared by the colonels in rectifying ſuch defects as his grace has pointed out.

WARLEY.

The following are the regiments forming the encampment at this place:

Cambridge, Lord Hardwicke.

Derby, Lord G. H. Cavendiſh.

Huntingdon, Duke of Manchester.

Hertford, Marquis of Saliſbury.

North Lincoln, Colonel Cawthorne.

Pembroke, Lord Milford.

To each regiment are attached two field-pieces. General Preſcot commands under Marquis Townſhend.

LIST of PRIZES, continued from Page 64.

THE Swallow, Capt. Brooks, 26 days paſſage from Gibraltar, is arrived at Falmouth with diſpatches from Admiral Coſby. She brings the pleaſing intelligence of his majeſty's ſhip Egmont having retaken a Spaniſh galleon, one of the richeſt ever taken; and captured the French frigate who took the galleon ſeveral days before.—The French frigate is one of the new conſtruction, mounts 42 guns, quite new, and the galleon was the only prize ſhe has taken.

The Phœnix, Sir Richard Strachan, has captured La Pauline, a French Eaſt-Indiaman, valued at 30,000l. and brought her into Portſmouth.

The Fury ſloop of war, of 16 guns, Captain Haget, commander, is arrived at Plymouth from Liverpool, to which port ſhe was a convoy to ſeveral merchantmen from Gibraltar. The Fury took and carried into Gibraltar 19 prizes.

The Creſcent frigate, Capt. Saumarez, captured on the 2d inſtant le Club de Cherburg, a French cutter privateer, of ten guns, two days from Breſt, bound to the coaſt of Ireland, where ſhe had been very ſucceſsful on a former cruize, having taken four veſſels of value.

Lately was brought into Portland-road, Weymouth, by the Mary privateer, of that port, William Reed commander, an American brig called the Mary, of and from Charleſtown, bound to Havre de Grace,

Grace, burthen about 200 tons; laden with coffee and cotton, valued at about 20,000l. There were four French paſſengers on-board her.

The Falcon ſloop of war has taken and brought into Portſmouth a large French brig privateer, after an engagement of three hours off Portland.

The French brig l'Amiable Amelia, loaded with pitch and tar, and other naval ſtores, with a few bales of dry goods, is brought into Port Royal. She was cut out from Cape Donna Maria, by the boats of his majeſty's ſhips Europa, Proſerpine, and Fly.

His majeſty's ſhip Hyæna, Capt. Hargood, has carried into Port Royal the following prizes: — The ſloop Pelops, loaded with cotton and mahogany; the ſloop Doraide, loaded with wine and dry goods; a privateer ſchooner, mounting four twenty-four pounders and twelve ſwivels, with twenty men; a Dutch ſloop in ballaſt, that had been taken by the above privateer; the ſhip King Grey, Caſh, of Liverpool, 275 ſlaves, and taken by the above privateer near Porto Rico— the privateer was eſcorting her prizes into St. Domingo.

His majeſty's ſhip Penelope, Captain Rowley, of 32 guns, has alſo captured a French man-of-war brig; which, being a very fine veſſel, is bought into the ſervice, and Mr. Woolly, who was firſt lieutenant of the Europa, of 50 guns, is made captain of her.

July 8. The Syren frigate, of 32 guns, Capt. Manley (reſpecting the ſafety of which ſhip great doubts were entertained), arrived at Plymouth from a cruize. A few days ſince ſhe fell in with, and captured, in the Bay of Biſcay, after a chace of 28 hours, a beautiful copper-bottomed ſhip privateer, called the Robert, mounting 22 guns, with 200 men, belonging to Bourdeaux, from which place ſhe had ſailed but three days, during which time ſhe had taken nothing. She is the ſame ſhip which re-captured the Eaſt-Indiaman taken ſome time ago by the Thetis frigate, Capt. Harwell.

The Britiſh frigate Proſerpine, of 28 guns, has captured a French frigate of 32 guns, and carried her into St. Kitt's: the French commander made a gallant defence; but, after a ſmart conteſt of upwards of an hour, the ſuperior bravery and good fortune of the Engliſh prevailed.

The Nereus (letter of marque), of 16 guns, M'Iver, from Liverpool for New York, has re-captured a Spaniſh brig from the Havannah, laden with 850 boxes fine ſugar, and other articles, and carried her into Kinſale.

The Caſtor and Mermaid frigates have captured two French privateers, of 14 and 20 guns, and retaken their prize, the Sacre Famille, Landa, from Monteviedo to Cadiz, and carried them into Gibraltar.

Letters are received at the admiralty-office from Admiral Gardner on the Weſt-India ſtation, which mention that a very ſevere engagement had taken place between the Proſerpine of 28 guns, Capt. J. Alms, and a French frigate of 32 guns, which Captain Alms took into fort St. George.

Sunday the 14th arrived at Plymouth, a large American ſhip called the Cato, of and from Portſmouth in New Hampſhire, laden with naval and military ſtores, bound to Bourdeaux, captured a few days ſince in the Bay of Biſcay by the Oreſtes ſloop of war, commanded by Lord Auguſtus Fitzroy.

The Queen cutter, of Folkſtone, has ſent into Guernſey the l'Amie de Plantier, of Bayonne, brig privateer, of 14 4-pounders and 90 men, taken by Captain Golden of the Queen, and Captain Seward of the Surprize, after an engagement of one hour and five minutes, 20 leagues from Bourdeaux. Capt. Seward had ten men wounded.

The Thought privateer, of London, has taken and brought into Falmouth, the Le Paſſe Partout, from Bourdeaux, a French privateer of ſixteen guns, with a quantity of dollars on-board, and ſome cheſts of ſugar, taken out of a Spaniſh veſſel; alſo the Rawlinſon, American ſhip, with flour and pork, from New York to Havre, taken in company with the Weymouth, of Weymouth; and the Active, Blair, an American, from Philadelphia to Nantes, with ſugar, coffee, &c.

A gentleman at Naſſau (New Providence) adviſes, that his majeſty's ſloop of war the Serpent had brought in there, on the 16th of April, a large French ſhip, captured off St. Nichola Mole, laden with dry goods, wine, brandy, &c. and that upwards of thirty prizes had been ſent into Jamaica.

His majeſty's frigate the Iris, of 32 guns, lately arrived at Liſbon, had an engagement with a French frigate of 36 guns; the Iris had ſeven men killed, and 32 wounded, with the loſs of her foremaſt and mizen-maſt, from which ſhe was prevented purſuing the French frigate, which is ſince arrived at Bourdeaux, with the loſs of 30 men killed and a great number wounded.

OF MAGNANIMITY.

MAGNANIMITY is that peculiar greatneſs of mind which directs and upholds us in all circumſtances of trial and adverſity. It is the good ſenſe of pride, and the nobleſt way of acquiring applauſe. It renders the ſoul ſuperior to the trouble, diſorder, and emotion, which the appearance of great danger might excite; and it is by this quality that heroes maintain their tranquillity, and preſerve the free uſe of their reaſon in the moſt ſurpriſing and dreadful accidents. It admires the ſame quality in its enemy; and fame, glory, conqueſt, deſire of opportunities to pardon and oblige their oppoſers, are what glow in the minds of the brave. Magnanimity and courage are inſeparable.

The inhabitants of Privernum being ſubdued and taken priſoners after a revolt, one of them being aſked by a Roman ſenator, who was for putting them all to death, what puniſhment he and his fellow-captives deſerved? anſwered with great intrepidity, "We deſerve that puniſhment which is due to men who are jealous of their liberty, and think themſelves worthy of it." Plautinus, perceiving that his anſwer exaſperated ſome of the ſenators, endeavoured to prevent the ill effects of it, by putting a milder queſtion to the priſoner: "How would you behave (ſays he) if Rome ſhould pardon you?" "Our conduct (replied the generous captive) depends on yours. If the peace you grant be an honourable one, you may depend on a conſtant fidelity on our parts: if the terms of it be hard and diſhonourable, lay no ſtreſs on our adherence to you." Some of the judges conſtrued theſe words as menaces; but the wiſer part, finding in them a great deal of magnanimity, cried out, that a nation whoſe only deſire was liberty, and their only fear that of loſing it, was worthy to become Roman. Accordingly, a decree paſſed in favour of the priſoners, and Privernum was declared a municipium. Thus the bold ſincerity of one man ſaved his country, and gained it the privilege of being incorporated into the Roman ſtate.

Subrius Flavius, the Roman tribune, being impeached for having conſpired againſt the life of the Emperor Nero, not only owned the charge, but gloried in it. Upon the emperor's aſking him what provocation he had given him to plot his death? "Becauſe I abhorred thee (ſaid Flavius), though there was not in the whole army one more zealouſly attached to thee than I, ſo long as thou didſt merit affection; but I began to hate thee when thou becameſt the murderer of thy mother, the murderer of thy brother and wife, a charioteer, a comedian, an incendiary, and a tyrant." Tacitus tells us, that the whole conſpiracy afforded nothing that proved ſo bitter and pungent to Nero as this reproach. He ordered Flavius to be immediately put to death, which he ſuffered with amazing intrepidity. When the executioner deſired him to ſtretch out his neck valiantly, "I wiſh (replied he) thou mayeſt ſtrike as valiantly."

When the Scythian ambaſſadors waited on Alexander the Great, they gazed attentively upon him for a long time without ſpeaking a word, being very probably ſurpriſed, as they formed a judgment of men from their air and ſtature, to find that his did not anſwer the high idea they entertained of him from his fame. At laſt, the oldeſt of the ambaſſadors (according to Q. Curtius) addreſſed him thus: "Had the gods given thee a body proportionable to thy ambition, the whole univerſe would have been too little for thee. With one hand thou wouldſt touch the eaſt, and with the other the weſt; and, not ſatisfied with this, thou wouldſt follow the ſun, and know where he hides himſelf. But what have we to do with thee? we never ſet foot in thy country. May not thoſe who inhabit woods be allowed to live, without knowing who thou art, and whence thou comeſt? We will neither command over, nor ſubmit to, any man. And, that thou mayeſt be ſenſible what kind of people the Scythians are, know, that we received from heaven, as a rich preſent, a yoke of oxen, a plough-ſhare, a dart, a javelin, and a cup. Theſe we make uſe of, both with our friends and againſt our enemies.

To our friends we give corn, which we procure by the labour of our oxen; with them we offer wine to the gods in our cup; and, with regard to our enemies, we combat them at a diſtance with our arrows, and near at hand with our javelins. But thou, who boaſteſt thy coming to extirpate robbers, thou thyſelf art the greateſt robber upon earth. Thou haſt plundered all the nations thou overcameſt: thou haſt poſſeſſed thyſelf of Lydia, invaded Syria, Perſia, and Bactriana; thou art forming a deſign to march as far as India; and now thou comeſt hither to ſeize upon our herds of cattle. The great poſſeſſions thou haſt only make thee covet more eagerly what thou haſt not. If thou art a god, thou oughteſt to do good to mortals, and not deprive them of their poſſeſſions. If thou art a mere man, reflect always on what thou art. They whom thou ſhalt not moleſt will be thy true friends, the ſtrongeſt friendſhips being contracted between equals; and they are eſteemed equals who have not tried their ſtrength againſt each other: but do not imagine that thoſe whom thou conquereſt can love thee."

Richard I. king of England, having inveſted the caſtle of Chalus, was ſhot in the ſhoulder with an arrow; an unſkilful ſurgeon, endeavouring to extract the weapon, mangled the fleſh in ſuch a manner, that a gangrene enſued. The caſtle being taken, and perceiving he ſhould not live, he ordered Bertram de Gourdon, who had ſhot the arrow, to be brought into his preſence. Bertram being come, "What harm (ſaid the king) did ever I do thee, that thou ſhouldſt kill me?" The other replied, with great magnanimity and courage, "You killed with your own hand my father and two of my brothers, and you likewiſe deſigned to have killed me. You may now ſatiate your revenge. I ſhould cheerfully ſuffer all the torments that can be inflicted, were I ſure of having delivered the world of a tyrant who filled it with blood and carnage." This bold and ſpirited anſwer ſtruck Richard with remorſe. He ordered the priſoner to be preſented with one hundred ſhillings, and ſet at liberty; but Maccardec, one of the king's friends, like a true ruffian, ordered him to be flayed alive.

The following modern inſtance is extracted from a late French work intitled, *Ecole Hiſtorique & Morale du Soldat, &c.* A mine, underneath one of the outworks of a citadel, was entruſted to the charge of a ſerjeant and a few ſoldiers of the Piedmonteſe guards. Several companies of the enemy's troops had made themſelves maſters of this work; and the loſs of the place would probably ſoon have followed had they maintained their poſt in it. The mine was charged, and a ſingle ſpark would blow them all into the air. The ſerjeant, with the greateſt coolneſs, ordered the ſoldiers to retire, deſiring them to requeſt the king to take care of his wife and children; ſtruck fire, ſet a match to the train, and ſacrificed himſelf for his country.

THE BATTLE OF ISSUS.

NEAR Iſſus, now Ajazo, a town of Cilicia, in Natolia, in a difficult paſs between the mountains and the ſea, Alexander the Great fought his ſecond battle with Darius. One great cauſe of the defeat which the Perſians received here was the bad conduct of their monarch, who led his numerous forces into a narrow place, where they had not room to act. Alexander was ſo much ſurpriſed when he firſt received the news that Darius was behind him, that he could ſcarcely believe it to be true: but when he was thoroughly ſatisfied of the fact, and that Darius had again paſſed the river Pinarus, he called a council of war, wherein, without aſking any body's advice, he only told them, that he hoped they would remember their former actions; and that they, who were always conquerors, were about to fight people who were always beaten. He further obſerved, that Darius ſeemed to be infatuated, ſince he had with ſuch expedition quitted an open champaign country, where his numbers might have acted with advantage, to fight in a place incloſed, where the Macedonian phalanx might be well drawn up, and where his numbers could only incommode him. He then made the neceſſary diſpoſitions for

repaſſing

repaſſing the mountains, poſted guards where he found them neceſſary, and then commanded his troops to refreſh themſelves, and to take their reſt till morning.

At break of day he began to repaſs the mountains, obliging his forces to move in cloſe order where the road was narrow, and to extend themſelves where they had more room; the right wing always keeping cloſe to the mountain, and the left to the ſea-ſhore. On the right there was a battalion of heavy-armed troops, beſides the targeteers under the command of Nicanor the ſon of Parmenio. Next theſe, extending to the phalanx, were the corps of Cœnus and Perdiccas; and on the left, the reſpective bodies commanded by Amyntas, Ptolemy, and Meleager. The foot appointed to ſupport them were commanded by Craterus; but the whole left wing was committed to Parmenio, with ſtrict orders not to decline from the ſea-ſhore, leſt the Perſians ſhould ſurround them. Darius ordered 20,000 foot and 30,000 horſe to retire, finding that he already wanted room to draw up the reſt. His firſt line conſiſted of 30,000 Greek mercenaries, having on their right and left 60,000 heavy-armed troops, being the utmoſt the ground would allow. On the left, towards the mountain, he poſted 20,000 men, which, from the hollow ſituation of the place, were brought behind Alexander's right wing. The reſt of his troops were formed into cloſe and uſeleſs lines behind the Greek mercenaries, to the number in all of 600,000 men. When this was done, he ſuddenly recalled the horſe who had retired, ſending part of them to take poſt on his right againſt the Macedonians commanded by Parmenio; and the reſt he ordered to the left towards the mountain: but, finding them unſerviceable there, he ſent the greateſt part of them to the right; and then took upon himſelf, according to the cuſtom of the Perſian kings, the command of the main body. As ſoon as Alexander perceived that the weight of the Perſian horſe was diſpoſed againſt his left wing, he diſpatched, with as much ſecrecy as he could, the Theſſalian cavalry thither, and ſupplied their places on the right by ſome brigades of horſe from the van, and light-armed troops. He alſo made ſuch diſpoſitions, that, notwithſtanding the advantage of the hollow mountain, the Perſians could not ſurround him. But, as theſe precautions had conſiderably weakened the centre of his army, he ordered thoſe advanced poſts on the enemy's left, of which he was moſt apprehenſive, to be attacked at the very beginning of the fight; and, when they were eaſily driven from them, he recalled as many troops as were neceſſary to ſtrengthen his centre.

When all things were in order, Alexander gave ſtrict command that his army ſhould march very ſlowly. As for Darius, he kept his troops fixed in their poſts, and in ſome places threw up ramparts; whence the Macedonians rightly obſerved, that he thought himſelf already a priſoner. Alexander, at the head of the right wing, engaged firſt, and without any difficulty broke and defeated the left wing of Darius. But, endeavouring to paſs the river Pinarus after them, his troops in ſome meaſure loſing their order, the Greek mercenaries fell upon them in flank, and made them fight, not only for victory, but their lives. Ptolemy the ſon of Seleucus, and 120 Macedonians of ſome rank, were killed upon the ſpot. But the foot next to Alexander's right wing, coming in ſeaſonably to its relief, fell upon the mercenaries in flank, amongſt whom a dreadful carnage was made; they being in a manner ſurrounded by the horſe and light-armed troops, which at firſt purſued the left wing, and the foot that now paſſed the river. The Perſian horſe on the right ſtill fought gallantly; but, when they were thoroughly informed of the rout of their left wing and of the deſtruction of the Greek mercenaries, and that Darius himſelf was fled, they began to break, and betake themſelves to flight alſo. The Theſſalian cavalry purſued them cloſe at the heels; and the narrow craggy roads incommoded them exceedingly, ſo that vaſt numbers of them periſhed. As for Darius, he fled ſoon after the left wing was broken, in a chariot with a few of his favourites: as far as the country was plain and open, he eſcaped well enough; but, when the roads became rocky and narrow, he quitted it, and, mounting a horſe,

rode all the night: his chariot, in which were his cloak and his bow, fell into the hands of Alexander, who carried them back to his camp.

In reſpect of the battle of Iſſus, Diodorus informs us, that Alexander looked every where for Darius; and, as ſoon as he diſcovered him, with his handful of guards attacked him and the flower of the Perſian army which was about him; being as deſirous of obtaining this victory by his perſonal valour, as of ſubduing the Perſian empire by the courage of his ſoldiers. But when Oxathres, the brother of Darius, ſaw Alexander's deſign, and how fiercely he ſought to accompliſh it, he threw himſelf, with the horſe who were about him, between his brother's chariot and the enemy, where an obſtinate fight was maintained, till the dead bodies roſe like an entrenchment about the chariot of Darius. Many of the Perſian nobility were ſlain, and Alexander himſelf was wounded in the thigh. At laſt, the horſes in the chariot of Darius ſtarted, and became ſo unruly, that the king himſelf was forced to take the reins; the enemy, however, preſſed ſo hard upon him, that he was conſtrained to call for another chariot, and mounted it in great danger. This was the beginning of the rout, which ſoon after became general. According to this author, the Perſians loſt 200,000 foot, and 10,000 horſe; the Macedonians 300 foot, and 150 horſe.

Juſtin informs us, that the Perſian army conſiſted of 400,000 foot, and about 100,000 horſe. He ſays that the battle was hard fought; that both the kings were wounded; and that the Perſians ſtill fought gallantly when their king fled, but that they were afterwards ſpeedily and totally routed: he is very particular as to their loſs, which he ſays amounted to 61,000 foot, 10,000 horſe, and 40,000 taken priſoners; of the Macedonians he ſays there fell no more than 130 foot, and 150 horſe. Curtius ſays, that of the Perſians there fell 100,000 foot, and 10,000 horſe: of Alexander's army 504, he ſays, were wounded; 32 foot and 150 horſe killed. That we may not ſuſpect any error in tranſcribers, his own obſervation confirms the fact: *Tantulo impendio ingens victoria ſtetit*, "So ſmall was the coſt of ſo great a victory."

THE FALL OF CORINTH.

CORINTH was the moſt illuſtrious of all the Greek cities. It is ſaid to have been founded 1514 years before Chriſt, by Siſyphus the ſon of Molus, and grandfather of Ulyſſes. Various reaſons are given for its name, but moſt authors derive it from Corinthus the ſon of Pelops. It was ſituated in the ſouth part of the iſthmus which joins the Peloponneſus, now the Morea, to the continent. It conſiſted of a citadel built upon an eminence, and thence named Acrocorinthus; beſides which it had two maritime towns ſubject to it, named Lecheum and Cenchrea. The whole ſtate extended ſcarcely half a degree in length or breath; but ſo advantageouſly were the abovementioned ports ſituated, that they might have gained the Corinthians a ſuperiority, if not a command, over all Greece, had not their advantageous ſituation inclined them to commerce rather than war. For their citadel was almoſt impregnable; and, commanding both the Ionian and Ægean ſeas, they could eaſily cut off all communication from one half of Greece with the other; for which reaſon this city was called one of the fetters of Greece.

But, as the genius of the Corinthians led them to commerce rather than martial exploits, their city became the fineſt in all Greece. It was adorned with the moſt ſumptuous buildings, as temples, palaces, theatres, porticoes, &c. all of them enriched with a beautiful kind of columns, which from the city were called Corinthian. But tho' the Corinthians ſeldom or never engaged in a war with a view of enlarging, but rather of defending, their little ſtate, they did not forget to cultivate a good diſcipline both in time of peace and war. Hence many brave and experienced generals have been furniſhed by Corinth to the other Grecian cities, and it was not uncommon for the latter to prefer a Corinthian general to any of their own.

This

This city continued to preſerve its liberty till the year before Chriſt 146, when it was pillaged and burnt by the Romans. It was at that time the ſtrongeſt place in the world: but the inhabitants were ſo diſheartened by a preceding defeat, and the death of their general, that they had not preſence of mind enough even to ſhut their gates. The Roman conſul Mummius was ſo much ſurpriſed at this, that at firſt he could ſcarcely believe it; but afterwards, fearing an ambuſcade, he advanced with all poſſible caution. As he met with no reſiſtance, his ſoldiers had nothing to do but deſtroy the few inhabitants that had not fled, and plunder the city. Such of the men as had ſtaid were all put to the ſword, and the women were ſold for ſlaves. After this the city was ranſacked by the greedy ſoldiers, and the ſpoils of it are ſaid to have been immenſe. There were more veſſels of all ſorts of metal, more fine pictures, and ſtatues done by the beſt maſters, in Corinth, than in any other city in the world. All the princes of Europe and Aſia, who had any taſte in painting and ſculpture, furniſhed themſelves here with their richeſt movcables: here were caſt the fineſt ſtatues for temples and palaces, and all the liberal arts were brought to their greateſt perfection. Many ineſtimable pieces of the moſt famous painters and ſtatuaries fell into the hands of the ignorant ſoldiers, who either deſtroyed them, or parted with them for a trifle. Polybius the hiſtorian was an eye-witneſs to this barbariſm of the Romans. He had the mortification to ſee two of them playing at dice on a famous picture of Ariſtides, which was accounted one of the wonders of the world. The piece was a Bacchus, ſo exquiſitely done, that it was proverbially ſaid of any extraordinary performance, "It is as well done as the Bacchus of Ariſtides." This maſterly piece of painting, however, the ſoldiers willingly exchanged for a more convenient table to play upon: but, when the ſpoils of Corinth were put up to ſale, Attalus king of Pergamus offered for it 600,000 ſeſterces, near 5000l. of our money. Mummius was ſurpriſed at ſuch a high price being offered for a picture, and imagined there muſt be ſome magical virtue in it. He therefore interpoſed his authority, and carried it to Rome, notwithſtanding the complaints of Attalus. Here this famous picture was lodged in the temple of Ceres, where it was deſtroyed by fire, together with the temple. Another extraordinary inſtance of the ſtupidity of Mummius is, that, when the pictures were put on-board the tranſports, he told the maſters of the veſſels very ſeriouſly, that, if any of the things were either loſt or ſpoiled, he would oblige them to find others at their own coſt; as if any others pieces could have ſupplied the loſs of thoſe ineſtimable originals, done by the greateſt maſters in Greece. When the city was thoroughly pillaged, fire was ſet to all the corners of it at the ſame time. The flames grew more violent as they drew near the centre, and at laſt, uniting there, made one prodigious conflagration. At this time the famous metalline mixture is ſaid to have been made, which could never afterwards be imitated by art. The gold, ſilver, and braſs, which the Corinthians had concealed, were melted, and ran down the ſtreets in ſtreams, and, when the flames were extinguiſhed, a new metal was found, compoſed of ſeveral different ones, and greatly eſteemed in after-ages.

The town lay deſolate until Julius Cæſar ſettled there a Roman colony; when, in moving the rubbiſh and digging, many vaſes were found of braſs or earth finely emboſſed. The price given for theſe curioſities excited induſtry in the new inhabitants. They left no burying-place unexamined; and Rome, it is ſaid, was filled with the furniture of the ſepulchres of Corinth.

FRAGMENT OF ANCIENT ROMANCE.

——SIR Bertrand turned his ſteed towards the woulds, hoping to croſs theſe dreary moors before the curfew. But, ere he had proceeded half his journey, he was bewildered by the different tracks; and not being able, as far as the eye could reach, to eſpy any object but the brown heath ſurrounding him, he was at length quite uncertain which way he ſhould

ſhould direct his courſe. Night overtook him in this ſituation. It was one of thoſe nights when the moon gives a faint glimmering of light through the thick black clouds of a lowering ſky. Now and then ſhe ſuddenly emerged in full ſplendour from her veil, and then inſtantly retired behind it; having juſt ſerved to give the forlorn Sir Bertrand a wide-extended proſpect over the deſolate waſte. Hope and native courage awhile urged him to puſh forwards, but at length the increaſing darkneſs and fatigue of body and mind overcame him; he dreaded moving from the ground he ſtood on, for fear of unknown pits and bogs, and, alighting from his horſe in deſpair, he threw himſelf on the ground. He had not long continued in that poſture, when the ſullen toll of a diſtant bell ſtruck his ears—he ſtarted up, and, turning towards the ſound, diſcerned a dim twinkling light. Inſtantly he ſeized his horſe's bridle, and with cautious ſteps advanced towards it. After a painful march, he was ſtopped by a moated ditch, ſurrounding the place from whence the light proceeded; and by a momentary glimpſe of moon-light he had a full view of a large antique manſion, with turrets at the corners, and an ample porch in the centre. The injuries of time were ſtrongly marked on every thing about it. The roof in various places was fallen in, the battlements were half demoliſhed, and the windows broken and diſmantled. A drawbridge, with a ruinous gateway at each end, led to the court before the building—He entered, and inſtantly the light, which proceeded from a window in one of the turrets, glided along and vaniſhed; at the ſame moment the moon ſunk beneath a black cloud, and the night was darker than ever. All was ſilent—Sir Bertrand faſtened his ſteed under a ſhed, and, approaching the houſe, traverſed its whole front with light and ſlow footſteps—All was ſtill as death—He looked in at the lower windows, but could not diſtinguiſh a ſingle object through the impenetrable gloom. After a ſhort parley with himſelf, he entered the porch, and, ſeizing a maſſy iron knocker at the gate, lifted it up, and, heſitating, at length ſtruck a loud ſtroke—the noiſe reſounded thro' the whole manſion with hollow echoes. All was ſtill again—he repeated the ſtrokes more boldly and louder—another interval of ſilence enſued—A third time he knocked, and a third time all was ſtill. He then fell back to ſome diſtance, that he might diſcern whether any light could be ſeen in the whole front—It again appeared in the ſame place, and quickly glided away, as before—at the ſame inſtant a deep ſullen toll ſounded from the turret. Sir Bertrand's heart made a fearful ſtop—he was a while motionleſs; then terror impelled him to make ſome haſty ſteps towards his ſteed—but ſhame ſtopped his flight; and, urged by honour and a reſiſtleſs deſire of finiſhing the adventure, he returned to the porch; and, working up his ſoul to a full ſteadineſs of reſolution, he drew forth his ſword with one hand, and with the other lifted up the latch of the gate. The heavy door, creeking upon its hinges, reluctantly yielded to his hand—he applied his ſhoulder to it, and forced it open—he quitted it, and ſtepped forward—the door inſtantly ſhut with a thundering clap. Sir Bertrand's blood was chilled—he turned back to find the door, and it was long ere his trembling hands could ſeize it—but his utmoſt ſtrength could not open it again. After ſeveral ineffectual attempts, he looked behind him, and beheld, acroſs a hall, upon a large ſtair-caſe, a pale bluiſh flame, which caſt a diſmal gleam of light around. He again ſummoned forth his courage, and advanced towards it—it retired. He came to the foot of the ſtairs, and after a moment's deliberation aſcended. He went ſlowly up, the flame retiring before him, till he came to a wide gallery—The flame proceeded along it, and he followed in ſilent horror, treading lightly, for the echoes of his footſteps ſtartled him. It led him to the foot of another ſtair-caſe, and then vaniſhed—At the ſame inſtant another toll ſounded from the turret—Sir Bertrand felt it ſtrike upon his heart. He was now in total darkneſs, and, with his arms extended, began to aſcend the ſecond ſtair-caſe. A dead cold hand met his left hand, and firmly graſped it, drawing him forcibly forwards—he endeavoured to diſengage himſelf, but could not—he made a furious

rious blow with his ſword, and inſtantly a loud ſhriek pierced his ears, and the dead hand was left powerleſs within his. He dropped it, and ruſhed forwards with a deſperate valour. The ſtairs were narrow and winding, and interrupted by frequent breaches, and looſe fragments of ſtone. The ſtair-caſe grew narrower and narrower, and at length terminated in a low iron grate. Sir Bertrand puſhed it open—it led to an intricate winding paſſage, juſt large enough to admit a perſon upon his hands and knees. A faint glimmering of light ſerved to ſhew the nature of the place—Sir Bertrand entered—A deep hollow groan reſounded from a diſtance through the vault—He went forwards, and, proceeding beyond the firſt turning, he diſcerned the ſame blue flame which had before conducted him.—He followed it. The vault, at length, ſuddenly opened into a lofty gallery, in the midſt of which a figure appeared, completely armed, thruſting forwards the bloody ſtump of an arm, with a moſt terrible frown and menacing geſture, and brandiſhing a ſword in his hand. Sir Bertrand undauntedly ſprung forwards; and aiming a fierce blow at the figure, it inſtantly vaniſhed, letting fall a maſſy iron key. The flame now reſted upon a pair of ample folding doors at the end of the gallery. Sir Bertrand went up to it, and applied the key to a brazen lock—with difficulty he turned the bolt—inſtantly the doors flew open, and diſcovered a large apartment, at the end of which was a coffin reſted upon a bier, with a taper burning on each ſide of it. Along the room, on both ſides, were gigantic ſtatues of black marble, attired in the Mooriſh habit, and holding enormous ſabres in their right hands. Each of them reared his arm, and advanced one leg forwards, as the knight entered; at the ſame moment the lid of the coffin flew open, and the bell tolled. The flame ſtill glided forwards, and Sir Bertrand reſolutely followed, till he arrived within ſix paces of the coffin. Suddenly a lady in a ſhroud and black veil roſe up in it, and ſtretched out her arms towards him—at the ſame time the ſtatues claſhed their ſabres and advanced. Sir Bertrand flew to the lady, and claſped her in his arms—ſhe threw up her veil, and kiſſed his lips; and inſtantly the whole building ſhook as with an earthquake, and fell aſunder with a horrible craſh. Sir Bertrand was thrown into a ſudden trance, and on recovering found himſelf ſeated on a velvet ſofa, in the moſt magnificent room he had ever ſeen, lighted with innumerable tapers, in luſtres of pure cryſtal. A ſumptuous banquet was ſet in the middle. The doors opening to ſoft muſic, a lady of incomparable beauty, attired with amazing ſplendour, entered, ſurrounded by a troop of gay nymphs more fair than the Graces—She advanced to the knight, and, falling on her knees, thanked him as her deliverer. The nymphs placed a garland of laurel upon his head, and the lady led him by the hand to the banquet, and ſat beſide him. The nymphs placed themſelves at the table, and a numerous train of ſervants, entering, ſerved up the feaſt; delicious muſic playing all the time. Sir Bertrand could not ſpeak for aſtoniſhment—he could only return their honours by courteous looks and geſtures. After the banquet was finiſhed, all retired but the lady, who, leading back the knight to the ſofa, addreſſed him in theſe words: — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —

VICE CONTRASTED WITH VIRTUE.

LET any man in a cool hour, when he is diſengaged from buſineſs, and undiſturbed by paſſion, ſit down, and ſeriouſly reflect with himſelf what ſtate or temper of mind he would chooſe to feel and indulge, in order to be eaſy and to enjoy himſelf. Would he chooſe, for that purpoſe, to be in a conſtant diſſipation and hurry of thought; to be diſturbed in the exerciſe of his reaſon; to have various and often interfering phantoms of good playing before his imagination, ſoliciting and diſtracting him by turns, now ſoothing him with amuſing hopes, then torturing him with anxious fears; and to approve this minute what he ſhall condemn the next? Would he chooſe

to have a ſtrong and painful ſenſe of every petty injury; quick apprehenſions of every impending evil; inceſſant and inſatiable deſires of power, wealth, honour, pleaſure; an irreconcileable antipathy againſt all competitors and rivals; inſolent and tyrannical diſpoſitions to all below him; fawning, and at the ſame time envious, diſpoſitions to all above him; with dark ſuſpicions of every mortal? Would he chooſe neither to love nor be beloved of any; to have no friend in whom to confide, or with whom to interchange his ſentiments or deſigns; no favourite, on whom to beſtow his kindneſs, or vent his paſſions; in fine, to be conſcious of no merit with mankind, no eſteem from any creature, no good affection to his Maker, no concern for, nor hopes of, his approbation; but, inſtead of all theſe, to hate, and know that he is hated, to condemn, and know that he is condemned, by all; by the good, becauſe he is ſo unlike; and by the bad, becauſe he is ſo like themſelves; to hate or to dread the very Being that made him; and, in ſhort, to have his breaſt the ſeat of pride and paſſion, petulance and revenge, deep melancholy, cool malignity, and all the other furies that ever poſſeſſed and tortured mankind? Would any calm inquirer after happineſs pitch on ſuch a ſtate, and ſuch a temper of mind, as the moſt likely means to put him in poſſeſſion of his deſired eaſe and ſelf-enjoyment?

Or would he rather chooſe a ſerene and eaſy flow of thought; a reaſon clear and compoſed; a judgment unbiaſſed by prejudice, and undiſtracted by paſſion; a ſober and well-governed fancy, which preſents the images of things true and unmixed with deluſive and unnatural charms, and therefore adminiſters no improper or dangerous fuel to the paſſions, but leaves the mind free to chooſe or reject, as becomes a reaſonable creature; a ſweet and ſedate temper, not eaſily ruffled by hopes or fears, prone neither to ſuſpicion nor revenge, apt to view men and things in the faireſt lights, and to bend gently to the humours of others rather than obſtinately to contend with them? Would he chooſe ſuch moderation and continence of mind, as neither to be ambitious of power, fond of honours, covetous of wealth, nor a ſlave to pleaſure; a mind of courſe neither elated with ſucceſs, nor dejected with diſappointment; ſuch a modeſt and noble ſpirit as ſupports power without inſolence, wears honour without pride, uſes wealth without profuſion or parſimony; and rejoices more in giving than in receiving pleaſure; ſuch fortitude and equanimity as riſes above misfortunes, or turns them into bleſſings; ſuch integrity and greatneſs of mind, as neither flatters the vices, nor triumphs over the follies, of men; as equally ſpurns ſervitude and tyranny, and will neither engage in low deſigns, nor abet them in others? Would he chooſe, in fine, ſuch mildneſs and benignity of heart as takes part in all the joys, and refuſes none of the ſorrows, of others; ſtands well-affected to all mankind; is conſcious of meriting the eſteem of all, and of being beloved by the beſt; a mind which delights in doing good without any ſhow, and yet arrogates nothing on that account; rejoices in loving and being beloved by its Maker, acts ever under his eye, reſigns itſelf to his providence, and triumphs in his approbation?—Which of theſe diſpoſitions would be his choice, in order to be contented, ſerene, and happy?—The former temper is vice, the latter virtue. Where one prevails, there miſery prevails, and by the generality is acknowledged to prevail. Where the other reigns, there happineſs reigns, and by the confeſſion of mankind is acknowledged to reign. The perfection of either temper is miſery or happineſs in perfection. Therefore, every approach to either extreme is an approach to miſery or to happineſs; i. e. every degree of vice or virtue is accompanied with a proportionable degree of pain or pleaſure.

The principal alleviations of a virtuous man's calamities are theſe:—That, tho' ſome of them may have been the effect of his imprudence or weakneſs, yet few of them are ſharpened by a ſenſe of guilt, and none of them by a conſciouſneſs of wickedneſs, which ſurely is their keeneſt ſting;—that they are common to him with the beſt of men;—that they ſeldom or never attack him quite unprepared, but rather guarded with a conſciouſneſs of his own ſince-

rity

rity and virtue, with a faith and truſt in Providence, and a firm reſignation to its perfect orders;—that they may be improved as a means of correction, or materials to give ſcope and ſtability to his virtues;—and, to name no more, they are conſiderably leſſened, and often ſweetened, to him, by the general ſympathy of the wiſe and good part of the world.

His enjoyments are more numerous, or, if leſs numerous, yet more intenſe, than thoſe of the bad man: for he ſhares in the joys of others by rebound; and every increaſe of general or particular happineſs is a real addition to his own. It is true, his friendly ſympathy with others ſubjects him to ſome pains which the hard-hearted wretch does not feel; yet to give a looſe to it is a kind of agreeable diſcharge. It is ſuch a ſorrow as he loves to indulge; a ſort of pleaſing anguiſh, that ſweetly melts the mind, and terminates in a ſelf-approving joy. Though the good man may want means to execute, or be diſappointed in the ſucceſs of, his benevolent purpoſes; yet he is ſtill conſcious of good affection, and that conſciouſneſs is an enjoyment of a more delightful ſavour than the greateſt triumps of ſucceſsful vice. If the ambitious, covetous, or voluptuous, are diſappointed, their paſſions recoil upon them with a fury proportioned to their opinion of the value of what they purſue, and their hope of ſucceſs; while they have nothing within to balance the diſappointment, unleſs it is an uſeleſs fund of pride, which, however, frequently turns mere accidents into mortifying affronts, and exalts grief into rage and frenzy. Whereas the meek, humble, and benevolent, temper, is its own reward, is ſatisfied from within; and, as it magnifies greatly the pleaſure of ſucceſs, ſo it wonderfully alleviates, and in a manner annihilates, all pain for the want of it.

As the good man is conſcious of loving and wiſhing well to all mankind, he muſt be ſenſible of his deſerving the eſteem and good-will of all; and this ſuppoſed reciprocation of ſocial feelings is, by the very frame of our nature, made a ſource of very intenſe and enlivening joys. By this ſympathy of affections and intereſts, he feels himſelf intimately united with the human race; and, being ſenſibly alive over the whole ſyſtem, his heart receives and becomes reſponſive to every touch given to any part. So that, as an eminent philoſopher finely expreſſes it, he gathers contentment and delight from the pleaſed and happy ſtates of thoſe around him, from accounts and relations of ſuch happineſs, from the very countenances, geſtures, voices, and ſounds, even of creatures foreign to our kind, whoſe ſigns of joy and contentment he can any way diſcern.

Nor do thoſe generous affections ſtop any other natural ſource of joy whatever, or deaden his ſenſe of any innocent gratification. They rather keep the ſeveral ſenſes and powers of enjoyment open and diſengaged, intenſe, and uncorrupted by riot or abuſe; as is evident to any one who conſiders the diſſipated unfeeling ſtate of men of pleaſure, ambition, or intereſt, and compares it with the ſerene and gentle ſtate of a mind at peace with itſelf, and friendly to all mankind, unruffled by any violent emotion, and ſenſible to every good-natured and alluring joy.

It were eaſy to ſhew, that it is only by maintaining the proportion ſettled there, that the mind arrives at true repoſe and ſatisfaction. If fear exceeds that proportion, it ſinks into melancholy and dejection. If anger paſſes juſt bounds, it ferments into rage and revenge, or ſubſides into a ſullen corroding gloom, which embitters every good, and renders one exquiſitely ſenſible to every ill. The private paſſions, the love of honour eſpecially, whoſe impulſes are more generous, as its effects are more diffuſive, are inſtruments of private pleaſure; but if they are diſproportioned to our wants, or to the value of their ſeveral objects, or to the balance of other paſſions equally neceſſary and more amiable, they become inſtruments of great pain and miſery. For, being now deſtitute of that counterpoiſe which held them at a due pitch, they grow turbulent, peeviſh, and revengeful, the cauſe of conſtant reſtleſſneſs and torment, ſometimes flying out into a wild delirious joy, at other times ſettling in a deep ſplenetic grief. The concert between reaſon and paſſion is then broken: all is diſſonance and diſ-

traction within. The mind is out of frame, and feels an agony proportioned to the violence of the reigning paſſion.

The caſe is much the ſame, or rather worſe, when any of the particular kind affections are out of their natural order and proportion; as happens in the caſe of effeminate pity, exorbitant love, parental dotage, or any party-paſſion, where the juſt regards to ſociety are ſupplanted. The more ſocial and diſintereſted the paſſion is, it breaks out into the wilder exceſſes, and makes the more dreadful havoc both within and abroad; as is but too apparent in thoſe caſes where a falſe ſpecies of religion, honour, zeal, or party-rage, has ſeized on the natural enthuſiaſm of the mind, and worked it up to madneſs. It breaks through all ties natural and civil, diſregards the moſt ſacred and ſolemn obligations, ſilences every other affection whether public or private, and transforms the moſt gentle natures into the moſt ſavage and inhuman.

Whereas, the man who keeps the balance of affection even, is eaſy and ſerene in his motions; mild, and yet affectionate; uniform and conſiſtent with himſelf; is not liable to diſagreeable colliſions of intereſts and paſſions; gives always place to the moſt friendly and humane affections, and never to acts of reſentment, but on high occaſions, when the ſecurity of the private, or welfare of the public, ſyſtem, or the great intereſts of mankind, neceſſarily require a noble indignation; and even then he obſerves a juſt meaſure in wrath: and, laſt of all, he proportions every paſſion to the value of the object he affects, or to the importance of the end he purſues.

In fine, the honeſt and good man has eminently the advantage of the knaviſh and ſelfiſh wretch in every reſpect. The pleaſures which the laſt enjoys flow chiefly from external advantages and gratifications; are ſuperficial and tranſitory; daſhed with long intervals of ſatiety, and frequent returns of remorſe and fear; dependant on favourable accidents and conjunctures; and ſubjected to the humours of men. But the good man is ſatisfied from himſelf; his principal poſſeſſions lie within, and therefore beyond the reach or the caprice of men or fortune; his enjoyments are exquiſite and permanent; accompanied with no inward checks to damp them, and always with ideas of dignity and ſelf-approbation; may be taſted at any time, and in any place. The gratifications of vice are turbulent and unnatural, generally ariſing from the relief of paſſions in themſelves intolerable, and iſſuing in tormenting reflection; often irritated by diſappointment, always inflamed by enjoyment, and yet ever cloyed with repetition. The pleaſures of virtue are calm and natural; flowing from the exerciſe of kind affections, or delightful reflections in conſequence of them; not only agreeable in the proſpect, but in the preſent feeling; they never ſatiate nor loſe their reliſh; nay, rather the admiration of virtue grows ſtronger every day; and not only is the deſire but the enjoyment heightened by every new gratification; and, unlike to moſt others, it is encreaſed, not diminiſhed, by ſympathy and communication.—In ſhort, the ſatisfactions of virtue may be purchaſed without a bribe, and poſſeſſed in the humbleſt as well as the moſt triumphant fortune; they can bear the ſtricteſt review, do not change with circumſtances, nor grow old with time. Force cannot rob, nor fraud cheat, us of them; and, to crown all, inſtead of abating they conſiderably enhance every other pleaſure.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE DEATH-WATCH.

THE death-watch is a little inſect famous for a ticking noiſe, like the beat of a watch, which the vulgar have long miſtaken for a preſage of death in the family where it is heard; whence it is alſo called *pediculus, fatidicus, mortiſaga, pulſatorius, &c.*

There are two kinds of death-watches. Of the firſt we have a good account in the Phil. Tranſ. by Mr. Allen. It is a ſmall beetle, five-ſixteenths of an inch long, of a dark brown colour, ſpotted; having pellucid wings under the vagina, a large cap or helmet on the head, and two antennæ proceeding from beneath the eyes, and doing the office of proboſcides. The part it beats with, he obſerved, was the extreme

extreme edge of the face, which he chooſes to call the upper lip, the mouth being protracted by this bony part, and lying underneath out of view.

This account is confirmed by Dr. Derham; with this difference, that, inſtead of ticking with the upper-lip, he obſerved the inſect to drawback its mouth, and beat with its forehead. That author had two death-watches, a male and a female, which he kept alive in a box ſeveral months; and could bring one of them to beat whenever he pleaſed, by imitating its beating. By this ticking noiſe he could frequently invite the male to get up upon the other in the way of coition. When the male found he got up in vain, he would get off again, beat very eagerly, and then up again: whence the ingenious author concludes thoſe pulſations to be the way whereby theſe inſects woo one another, and find out and invite each other to love.

The ſecond kind of death-watch is an inſect in appearance quite different from the firſt. The former only beats ſeven or eight ſtrokes at a time, and quicker; the latter will beat ſome hours together without intermiſſion; and his ſtrokes are more leiſurely, and like the beat of a watch. This latter is a ſmall greyiſh inſect, much like a louſe when viewed with the naked eye.

It is very common in all parts of the houſe in the ſummer-months: it is very nimble in running to ſhelter, and ſhy of beating when diſturbed; but will beat very freely before you, and alſo anſwer the beating, if you can view it without giving it diſturbance, or ſhaking the place where it lies, &c. The author cannot ſay whether they beat in any other thing, but he never heard their noiſe except in or near paper. As to their noiſe, the ſame perſon is in doubt whether it be made by their heads, or rather ſnouts, againſt the paper; or, whether it be not made after ſome ſuch manner as graſhoppers and crickets make their noiſe. He inclines to the former opinion. The reaſon of his doubt is, that he obſerved the animal's body to ſhake and give a jerk at every beat, but could ſcarcely perceive any part of its body to touch the paper. But its body is ſo ſmall and near the paper, and its motion in ticking ſo quick, that he thinks it might be, yet he not perceive it. The ticking, as in the other, he judges to be a wooing act; as having obſerved another, after much beating, come and make offers to the beating inſect, who, after ſome offers, left off beating, and got upon the back of the other. When they were joined, he left off again; and they continued ſome hours joined tail to tail, like dog and bitch in coition.

Whether this inſect ever becomes another animal or not, he cannot ſay; though he has ſome cauſe to ſuſpect that it becomes a ſort of fly. It is at firſt a minute white egg; much ſmaller than nits in the hair. In March it is hatched, and creeps about with its ſhell on. When it firſt leaves its ſhell, it is even ſmaller than its egg; though that is ſcarcely diſcernible without a microſcope. In this ſtate it is perfectly like the mites in cheeſe. From the mite-ſtate they grow gradually to their mature perfect ſtate. When they become like the old ones, they are at firſt very ſmall, but run about much more ſwiftly than before.

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

(Continued from page 72.)

GALLANTRY, when directed to a noble and virtuous end, is a qalification in men, which, above all others, recommends them to the veneration of the world, and to the admiration and eſteem of the ladies. Modern gallantry, however, is too often the reverſe of that generous ſentiment we are now deſcribing, ſince it ſeems to be the pride and exultation of our naval and military youth to rove from one female to another, for the diſhonourable gratification of boaſting how many they have ruined and ſeduced. We muſt not however loſe our ideas of things, though we have debauched our true reliſh in our practice: for, after all, ſolid virtue will keep its place in the opinion of the wiſe and ſenſible part of mankind. And though cuſtom

has not made it ſo ſcandalous as it ought to be to inſnare innocent women, and triumph in the falſehood; ſuch actions as we ſhall relate muſt be accounted true gallantry, and riſe higher in our eſteem the farther they are removed from our imitation, and of which the following are illuſtrious examples.

Scipio the younger, when only twenty-four years of age, was appointed by the Roman republic to the command of the army againſt the Spaniards. His wiſdom and valour would have done honour to the moſt experienced general. Determined to ſtrike an important blow, he formed a deſign of beſieging Carthagena, then the capital of the Carthaginian empire in Spain. His meaſures were ſo judiciouſly concerted, and with ſo much courage and intrepidity purſued, both by ſea and land, that, notwithſtanding a bold and vigorous defence, the capital was taken by ſtorm. The plunder was immenſe. Ten thouſand free-men were made priſoners; and above 300 more, of both ſexes, were received as hoſtages. One of the latter, a very ancient lady, the wife of Mandonius, brother of Indibilis king of the Ilergetes, watching her opportunity, came out of the crowd, and, throwing herſelf at the conqueror's feet, conjured him, with tears in her eyes, to recommend to thoſe who had the ladies in their keeping, to have regard to their ſex and birth. Scipio, who did not underſtand her meaning at firſt, aſſured her that he had given orders that they ſhould not want for any thing. But the lady replied, "Thoſe conveniences are not what affect us. In the condition to which fortune hath reduced us, with what ought we not to be contented? I have many other apprehenſions, when I conſider, on one ſide, the licentiouſneſs of war; and, on the other, the youth and beauty of the princeſſes whom you ſee here before us; for, as to me, my age protects me from all fear in this reſpect." She had with her the daughters of Indibilis, and ſeveral other ladies of high rank, all in the flower of youth, who conſidered her as their mother. Scipio then comprehending what the ſubject of her fear was, "My own glory (ſays he), and that of the Roman people, are concerned in not ſuffering that virtue, which ought always to be protected wherever we find it, ſhould be expoſed in my camp to a treatment unworthy of it. But you give me a new motive for being more ſtrict in my care of it, in the virtuous ſolicitude you ſhew in thinking only of the preſervation of your honour, in the midſt of ſo many other objects of fear." After this converſation, he committed the care of the ladies to ſome officers of experienced prudence, ſtrictly commanding that they ſhould treat them with all the reſpect they could pay to the mothers, wives, and daughters, of their allies and particular friends. It was not long before Scipio's integrity and virtue were put to the trial. Being retired in his camp, ſome of his officers brought him a young virgin of ſuch exquiſite beauty, that ſhe drew upon her the eyes and admiration of every body. The young conqueror ſtarted from his ſeat with confuſion and ſurpriſe; and, like one thunder-ſtruck, ſeemed to be robbed of that preſence of mind and ſelf-poſſeſſion ſo neceſſary in a general, and for which Scipio was remarkably famous. In a few moments, having rallied his ſtraggling ſpirits, he enquired of the beautiful captive, in the moſt civil and polite manner, concerning her country, birth, and connections; and, finding that ſhe was betrothed to a Celtiberian prince named Allucius, he ordered both him and the captive's parents to be ſent for. The Spaniſh prince no ſooner appeared in his preſence, than, even before he ſpoke to the father and mother, he took him aſide; and, to remove the anxiety he might be in on account of the young lady, he addreſſed him in theſe words: "You and I are young, which admits of my ſpeaking to you with more liberty. Thoſe who brought me your future ſpouſe, aſſured me, at the ſame time, that you loved her with extreme tenderneſs; and her beauty left me no room to doubt it. Upon which reflecting, that if, like you, I had thought on making an engagement, and were not wholly engroſſed with the affairs of my country, I ſhould deſire that ſo honourable and legitimate a paſſion ſhould find favour, I think myſelf happy in the preſent conjuncture to do you this

this ſervice. Though the fortune of war has made me your maſter, I deſire to be your friend. Here is your wife; take her, and may the gods bleſs you with her. One thing, however, I would have you be fully aſſured of, that ſhe has been amongſt us as ſhe would have been in the houſe of her father and mother. Far be it from Scipio to purchaſe a looſe and momentary pleaſure at the expence of virtue, honour, and the happineſs of an honeſt man. No: I have kept her for you, in order to make you a preſent worthy of you to receive, and of me to give. The only gratitude I require of you for this ineſtimable gift is, that you would be a friend to the Roman people." Allucius's heart was too full to make him any anſwer; but, throwing himſelf at the general's feet, he wept aloud. The captive lady fell into the ſame poſture; and remained ſo, till the father burſt out into the following words: Oh! divine Scipio! the gods have given you more than human virtue! Oh! glorious leader! does not that obliged virgin give you, while ſhe prays to the gods for your proſperity, raptures above all the tranſports you could have reaped from the poſſeſſion of her injured perſon!"

The relations of the young lady had brought with them a very conſiderable ſum for her ranſom: but, when they ſaw that ſhe was reſtored to them in ſo generous and godlike a manner, they intreated the conqueror, with great earneſtneſs, to accept that ſum as a preſent; and declared, by his complying, that new favour would complete their joy and gratitude. Scipio, not being able to reſiſt ſuch warm and earneſt ſolicitations, told them that he accepted the gift, and ordered it to be laid at his feet: then addreſſing himſelf to Allucius, "I add (ſays he) to the portion which you are to receive from your father-in-law this ſum; which I deſire you to accept as a marriage-preſent."

If we conſider that Scipio was at this time in the prime of life, unmarried, and under no reſtraint, we cannot but acknowledge, that the conqueſt he made of himſelf was far more glorious than that of the Carthaginian empire: and, though his treatment of this captive prince was not more delicate and generous than what might juſtly be expected from a perſon endowed with reaſon and reflection, yet, conſidering how few there are in his circumſtances who would have acted as he did, we cannot but applaud his conduct, and propoſe him as a ſuitable example to future ages. Nor was his virtue unrewarded. The young prince, charmed with the liberality and politeneſs of Scipio, went into his country to publiſh the praiſes of ſo generous a victor. He cried out, in the tranſports of his gratitude, "That there was come into Spain a young hero like the gods; who conquered all things leſs by the force of his arms than the charms of his virtue and the greatneſs of his beneficence." Upon this report all Celtiberia ſubmitted to the Romans; and Allucius returned in a ſhout to Scipio, at the head of 1400 choſen horſe, to facilitate his future conqueſts. To render the marks of his gratitude ſtill more durable, Allucius cauſed the action we have juſt related to be engraven on a ſilver ſhield, which he preſented to Scipio, a gift infinitely more eſtimable and glorious than all his treaſures and triumphs. The buckler, which Scipio carried with him when he returned to Rome, was loſt, in paſſing the Rhone, with part of the baggage. It continued in that river till the year 1665, when ſome fiſhermen found it. It was ſome time ſince in the cabinet of the late king of France.

The circumſtance, which raiſes Alexander the Great above many conquerors, and, as it were, above himſelf, is the uſe he made of his victory after the battle of Iſſus. This is the moſt beautiful incident in his life. It is the point of view in which it is his intereſt to be conſidered; and it is impoſſible for him not to appear truly great in that view. By the victory of Iſſus he became poſſeſſed of the whole Perſian empire; not only Syſigambis, Darius's mother, was his captive, but alſo his wife and daughters, princeſſes whoſe beauty was not to be equalled in all Aſia. Alexander, like Scipio, was in the bloom of life, a conqueror, free, and not yet engaged in matrimony: nevertheleſs, his camp was to thoſe princeſſes a ſacred aſylum, or rather a temple, in which their chaſtity was ſecured

cured as under the guard of virtue itſelf; and ſo highly revered, that Darius, in his expiring moments, hearing the kind treatment they had met with, could not help lifting up his dying hands towards heaven, and wiſhing ſucceſs to ſo wiſe and generous a conqueror, who could govern his paſſions at ſo critical a time. Plutarch informs us more particularly, that the princeſſes lived ſo retired in the camp, according to their own deſire, that they were not ſeen by any perſon except their own attendants; nor did any other perſon dare to approach their apartments. After the firſt viſit, which was a reſpectful and ceremonious one, Alexander, to avoid expoſing himſelf to the dangers of human frailty, made a ſolemn reſolution never to viſit Darius's queen any more. He himſelf informs us of this memorable circumſtance, in a letter written by him to Parmenio, in which he commanded him to put to death certain Macedonians who had forced the wives of ſome foreign ſoldiers. In this letter was the following paragraph: "For, as to myſelf, it will be found that I neither ſaw nor would ſee the wife of Darius; and did not ſuffer any one to ſpeak of her beauty before me."

Henry VI. king of England, though unhappy in his family and government, was nevertheleſs poſſeſſed of many virtues. He was ſo remarkable for his chaſtity, that even before his marriage he would not allow any lady of a ſuſpicious character and unguarded conduct to frequent the court: and, having obſerved one day ſome ladies with their boſoms uncovered, he turned away his eyes from the indecent objects, and reprimanded them ſmartly in the ſimple dialect of the times: "Fy, fy, (ſaid he,) for ſhame; forſooth ye be to blame."

In the reign of King Charles II. when licentiouſneſs was at its height in Britain, a yeoman of the guards refuſed the miſtreſs of a king. The lady, who was diſſatisfied with her royal lover, had fixed her eyes upon this man, and thought ſhe had no more to do than ſpeak her pleaſure. He got out of her way; he refuſed to underſtand her; and, when ſhe preſſed him further, he ſaid, "I am married." The ſtory reached the king, with all its circumſtances; but they who expected an extravagant laugh upon the occaſion were diſappointed. He ſent for the perſon: he found him a gentleman, though reduced to that mean ſtation; and, "Odds fiſh, man (ſays he), though I am not honeſt enough to be virtuous myſelf, I value them that are." He gave him an appointment, and reſpected him for life.

The extreme parts of Scotland, whoſe people we deſpiſe for their poverty, are honeſt in this reſpect to a wonder; and in the Swede's dominion, towards the pole, there is no name for adultery. They thought it an offence man could not commit againſt man; and have no word to expreſs it in their language. The unpoliſhed Lapland peaſant, with theſe thoughts, is, as a human creature, much more reſpectable than the gay Briton, whoſe heart is ſtained with vices, and eſtranged from natural affection; and he is happier. The perfect confidence mutually repoſed between him and the honeſt partner of his breaſt, entails a ſatisfaction even in the loweſt poverty. It gilds the humble hearth, and lights the cabin; their homely meal is a ſacrifice of thanks, and every breath of ſmoke ariſes in incenſe. If hand be laid upon hand, it is ſure affection; and, if ſome infant plays about their knees, they look upon him and upon each other with a delight that greatneſs ſeldom knows, becauſe it feels diſtruſt.

Upon the whole, ſince the delicate nature of female honour and decorum, and the inexpreſſible grace of a chaſte and modeſt behaviour, are the ſureſt and indeed the only means of kindling at firſt, and ever after of keeping alive, the tender and elegant flame of love, and of accompliſhing the excellent ends deſigned by it; to attempt by fraud to violate one, or, under pretence of paſſion, to ſully and corrupt the other, and, by ſo doing, to expoſe the too often credulous and unguarded object, with a wanton cruelty, to the hatred of her own ſex and the ſcorn of ours, and to the loweſt infamy of both, is a conduct not only baſe and criminal, but inconſiſtent with that truly rational and refined enjoyment, the ſpirit and quinteſſence of which is derived from the baſhful and ſacred charms of virtue kept untainted, and therefore ever alluring to the lover's heart.

(To be continued.)

HISTORY OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

[*Continued from page* 70.]

THE climate as well as the ſoil of this extenſive empire is very different in different parts; ſevere cold being often felt in the northern provinces, while the inhabitants of the ſouthern ones are ſcarcely able to bear the heat. In general, however, the air is accounted wholeſome, and the inhabitants live to a great age.—The northern and weſtern provinces have many mountains, which in the latter are cultivated, but in the north are barren, rocky, and incapable of improvement. On the mountains of Chenſi, Honan, Canton, and Fokien, are many foreſts, abounding with tall ſtrait trees, of different kinds, fit for building, and particularly adapted for maſts and ſhip-timber. Theſe are uſed by the emperor in his private buildings; and from theſe foreſts enormous trunks are ſometimes tranſported to the diſtance of more than three hundred leagues. Other mountains contain quickſilver, iron, tin, copper, gold, and ſilver. Formerly theſe laſt were not allowed to be opened, leſt the people ſhould thereby be induced to neglect the natural richneſs of the ſoil: and it is certain, that, in the fifteenth century, the emperor cauſed a mine of precious ſtones to be ſhut, which had been opened by a private perſon. Of late, however, the Chineſe are leſs ſcrupulous, and a great trade in gold is carried on by them. Many extravagant fables are told by the Chineſe of their mountains, particularly of one in Chenſi which throws out flames, and produces violent tempeſts, whenever any one beats a drum or plays on a muſical inſtrument near it. In the province of Fokien is a mountain, the whole of which is an idol, or ſtatue of the god Fo. This natural coloſſus, for it appears not to have been the work of art, is ſo large, that each of its eyes is ſeveral miles in circumference, and its noſe extends ſome leagues.

China has ſeveral large lakes; the principal one is that named Poyang-hou, in the province of Kiang-ſi. It is formed by the confluence of four large rivers, extends near one hundred leagues in length; and, like the ſea, its waters are raiſed into tempeſtuous waves. The empire is watered by an immenſe number of rivers of different ſizes, of which two are particularly celebrated, viz. the Yang-tſe-kiang, or ſon of the ſea, and Hoang-ho, or the yellow-river. The former riſes in the province of Yunnan, and, paſſing through Hou-quang and Kiang-nan, falls into the eaſtern ocean, after a courſe of twelve hundred miles, oppoſite to the iſland of Tſon-ming, which is formed by the ſand accumulated at its mouth. This river is of immenſe ſize, being half a league broad at Nanking, where it is near 100 miles from its mouth. The navigation is dangerous, ſo that great numbers of veſſels are loſt on it. It runs with a rapid current, forming ſeveral iſlands in its courſe, which are again carried off, and new ones formed in different places, when the river is ſwelled by the torrents from the mountains. Theſe iſlands, while they remain, are very uſeful; producing great quantities of reeds ten or twelve feet high, which are uſed in all the neighbouring countries for fuel. The Hoang-ho, or yellow river, has its name from the yellow colour given it by the clay and ſand waſhed down in the time of rain. It riſes in the mountains which border the province of Te-tchuen on the weſt, and, after a courſe of near ſix hundred leagues, diſcharges itſelf into the eaſtern ſea, not far from the mouth of the Kiang. It is very broad and rapid, but ſo ſhallow, that it is ſcarcely navigable. It is very liable to inundations, often overflowing its banks, and deſtroying whole villages. For this reaſon it has been found neceſſary to confine it in ſeveral places by long and ſtrong dykes; which yet do not entirely anſwer the purpoſe. The people of Honan, therefore, whoſe land is exceedingly low, have ſurrounded moſt of their cities with ſtrong ramparts of earth faced with turf, at the diſtance of three furlongs.

The Chineſe have been at great pains to turn their lakes and rivers to the advantage of commerce, by promoting an inland navigation. One of their principal

principal works for this purpoſe is the celebrated canal reaching from Canton to Peking, and forming a communication between the ſouthern and northern provinces. This canal extends through no leſs a ſpace than ſix hundred leagues; but its navigation is interrupted in one place by a mountain, where paſſengers are obliged to travel ten or twelve leagues over land. A number of other canals are met with in this and other provinces: moſt of which have been executed by the induſtry of the inhabitants of different cities and towns, in order to promote their communication with the various parts of the empire. M. Groſier remarks, that, in theſe works, the Chineſe have "ſurmounted obſtacles that perhaps would have diſcouraged any other people; ſuch, for example, is part of a canal which conducts from Chao-king to Ning-po." Near theſe cities there are two canals, the waters of which do not communicate, and which differ ten or twelve feet in their level. To render this place paſſable for boats, they have conſtructed a double glacis of large ſtones, or rather two inclined planes, which unite in an acute angle at their upper extremity, and extend on each ſide to the ſurface of the water. If the bark is in the lower canal, they puſh it up the plane of the firſt glacis by means of ſeveral capſtans, until it is raiſed to the angle, when, by its own weight, it glides down the ſecond glacis, and precipitates itſelf into the water of the higher canal with the velocity of an arrow. It is aſtoniſhing that theſe barks, which are generally very long and heavily laden, never burſt aſunder when they are balanced on this acute angle; however, we never hear of any accident of this kind happening in the paſſage. It is true, they take the precaution of uſing for their keels a kind of wood which is exceedingly hard, and proper for reſiſting the violence of ſuch an effort.

The following remarkable phenomenon in a Chineſe river is related by Father le Couteux, a French miſſionary. "Some leagues above the village Chepai (ſays he), the river becomes conſiderably ſmaller, although none of its waters flow into any other channel; and, eight or nine leagues below, it reſumes its former breadth, without receiving any additional ſupply, excepting what it gets from a few ſmall rivulets, which are almoſt dry during the greater part of the year. Oppoſite to Che-pai it is ſo much diminiſhed, that, excepting one channel, which is not very broad, I have paſſed and repaſſed it ſeveral times by the help of a common pole. I was always ſurpriſed to find this river ſo narrow and ſhallow in that place; but I never thought of enquiring into the cauſe of it, until the loſs of a bark belonging to a Chriſtian family afforded me an opportunity. In that place where the river diminiſhes almoſt of a ſudden, it flows with great impetuoſity; and where it reſumes its former breadth it is equally rapid. At the ſixth moon, when the water was high and the wind ſtrong, the bark I have mentioned, arriving above Che-pai, was driven on a ſand-bank; for between theſe two places the river is full of moveable ſands, which are continually ſhifting their ſituation. The maſter of the boat dropped his anchor until the wind ſhould abate, and permit him to continue his voyage; but a violent vortex of moveable ſand, which was caſt up from the bottom of the river, laid the bark on its ſide; a ſecond vortex ſucceeded: then a third; and afterwards a fourth, which ſhattered the bark to pieces. When I arrived at the place where this bark had been loſt, the weather was mild and ſerene; I perceived eddies in the current every where around, which abſorbed and carried to the bottom of the river whatever floated on the ſurface; and I obſerved at the ſame time, that the ſand was thrown violently up with a vortical motion. Above theſe eddies the water was rapid, but without any fall; and in the place below, where the river reſumes its uſual courſe, no eddies are to be ſeen, but the ſand is thrown up in the ſame violent manner; and in ſome places there are water-falls, and a kind of ſmall iſlands ſcattered at ſome diſtance from one another. Theſe iſlands, which appear above the ſurface of the water, are not ſolid earth, but conſiſt of branches of trees, roots, and herbs, collected together. I was told that theſe boughs roſe up from the water, and that no one knew the place from whence they came. I was informed

formed that theſe maſſes, which were forty or fifty feet in extent on that ſide on which we paſſed, were immoveable, fixed in the bottom of the river; that it was dangerous to approach them, becauſe the water formed whirlpools every where around them; that, however, when the river was very low, the fiſhermen ſometimes ventured to collect the buſhes that floated on its ſurface, and which they uſed for fuel. I am of opinion, that, at the place of the river which is above Che-pai, the water falls into deep pits, from whence it forces up the ſand with that vortical motion; and that it flows under-ground to the other place, eight or nine leagues below, where it carries with it all the boughs, weeds, and roots, which it waſhes down in its courſe, and thus forms thoſe iſlands which appear above its ſurface. We know that there are ſome rivers that loſe themſelves entirely, or in part, in the bowels of the earth, and which afterwards ariſe in ſome other place; but I believe there never was one known to loſe part of its water below its own channel, and again to recover it at the diſtance of ſome leagues."

It has already been ſaid, that China is, in general, a fertile country; and indeed all travellers agree in this reſpect, and make encomiums on the extent and beauty of its plains. So careful are the huſbandmen in this empire to loſe none of their ground, that neither incloſure, hedge, nor ditch, nay, ſcarcely a ſingle tree, is ever to be met with. In ſeveral places the land yields two crops a-year; and even in the interval between the harveſts, the people ſow ſeveral kinds of pulſe and ſmall grain. The plains of the northern provinces yield wheat; thoſe of the ſouthern, rice, becauſe the country is low and covered with water. Notwithſtanding all this fertility, however, the inhabitants are much more frequently afflicted with famine than thoſe of the European nations, though the countries of Europe produce much leſs than China. For this two cauſes are aſſigned. 1. The deſtruction of the riſing crops by drought, hail, inundations, locuſts, &c. in which caſe China cannot, like the European countries, be ſupplied by importation. This is evident by conſidering how it is ſituated with regard to other nations. On the north are the Mogul Tartars, a lazy and indolent race, who ſubſiſt principally on the fleſh of their flocks; ſowing only a little millet for their own uſe. The province of Leatong, which lies to the north-eaſt, is indeed extremely fertile, but too far diſtant from the capital and centre of the empire to ſupply it with proviſions; and beſides, all carriage is impracticable but in the winter, when great quantities of game, and fiſh, preſerved in ice, are ſent thither. No corn is brought from Corea to China; and, though the Japan iſlands are only three or four days ſail from the Chineſe provinces of Kiang-nan and Che-kyang, yet no attempt was ever made to obtain proviſions from thence; whether it be that the Japaneſe have nothing to ſpare, or on account of the inſults offered by theſe iſlanders to foreign merchants. Formoſa lies oppoſite to the province of Fo-kien; but ſo incapable is that iſland of ſupplying any thing, that in a time of ſcarcity it requires a ſupply from China itſelf. The province of Canton is alſo bounded by the ſea, and has nothing on the ſouth but iſlands and remote countries. One year, when rice was exceedingly ſcarce, the emperor ſent for F. Parranin, a Jeſuit miſſionary, and aſked him if the city of Macao could not furniſh Canton with rice until the ſupply he had ordered from other provinces ſhould arrive: but was informed that Macao had neither rice, corn, fruits, herbs, nor flocks; and that it generally procured from China what was neceſſary for its ſubſiſtence. The only method, therefore, the Chineſe can take to guard againſt famines ariſing from theſe cauſes, is to erect granaries and public magazines in every province and moſt of the capital cities of the empire. This has at all times been a principal object of care to the public miniſters; but, tho' this mode of relief ſtill takes place in theory, ſo many ceremonies are to be gone through before any ſupply can be drawn from thoſe public repoſitories, that it ſeldom arrives ſeaſonably at the places where it is wanted; and thus numbers of unhappy wretches periſh for want. 2. Another cauſe of the ſcarcity of grain in this empire, is the prodigious conſumption of it in the compoſition

poſition of wines, and a ſpirituous liquor called rack. But, though government is well appriſed that this is one of the principal ſources of famine throughout the empire, it never employed means ſufficient to prevent it. Proclamations indeed have frequently been iſſued, prohibiting the diſtillation of rack; and the appointed officers will viſit the ſtill-houſes, and deſtroy the furnaces if nothing be given them; but, on ſlipping ſome money into their hands, they ſhut their eyes, and go ſomewhere elſe to receive another bribe. When the mandarin himſelf goes about, theſe diſtillers do not eſcape quite ſo eaſily, the workmen being whipped and impriſoned, after which they are obliged to carry a kind of collar called the cangue, which is deſcribed in page 116; the maſters are likewiſe obliged to change their habitations and conceal themſelves for a ſhort time, after which they generally reſume their operations. It is impoſſible, however, that any method of this kind can prove effectual in ſuppreſſing theſe manufactories while the liquors themſelves are allowed to be ſold publicly; and againſt this there is no law throughout the empire.

The baſis of all the civil laws of the Chineſe is filial piety. Every mandarin, who is a governor either of a province or city, muſt inſtruct the people aſſembled round him twice a month, and recommend to them the obſervance of certain ſalutary rules, which are ſummed up in a few ſhort ſentences, and ſuch as no perſon can ever be ſuppoſed capable of forgetting.

The Chineſe are allowed only to have one wife, whoſe rank and age muſt be nearly equal to that of their huſbands; but they are allowed to have ſeveral concubines, whom they may admit into their houſes without any formality, after paying the parents a ſum of money, and entering into a written engagement to uſe their daughters well. Theſe concubines are all in ſubjection to the lawful wife; their children are conſidered as her's; they addreſs her as mother, and can give this title to her only. A perſon that has once been married, whether man or woman, may lawfully marry again, but it is then no longer neceſſary to ſtudy equality of age or condition. A man may chooſe his ſecond wife from among his concubines; and, in all caſes, this new marriage requires very few formalities. A widow is abſolute miſtreſs of herſelf, and can neither be compelled by her parents to marry again, nor to continue in a ſtate of widowhood, contrary to her own inclination. Thoſe of moderate rank, however, who have no children, do not enjoy the ſame privilege; as the parents of the former huſband can diſpoſe of her in marriage, not only without her conſent, but without her knowledge. The law authoriſes the diſpoſal of them in this manner, in order to indemnify the relations of the deceaſed huſband for the money they may have coſt him. If the wife is left big with child, this cannot take place until ſhe is delivered; nor can it be done at all if ſhe brings forth a ſon. There are alſo two other exceptions: 1. when the parents of the widow aſſign her a proper maintenance; and, 2. if the widow embraces a religious life, and becomes a bonzeſſe.

Divorces are allowed in China in caſes of adultery, mutual diſlike, incompatibility of tempers, jealouſy, &c. No huſband can put away or ſell his wife until a divorce is legally obtained; and, if this regulation be not ſtrictly obſerved, the buyer and ſeller become equally culpable. If a wife, lawfully married, privately withdraws herſelf from her huſband, he may immediately commence an action at law; by the ſentence of which ſhe becomes his ſlave, and he is at liberty to ſell her to whom he pleaſes. On the other hand, if a huſband leaves his wife for three years, ſhe is at liberty, after laying her caſe before the mandarins, to take another huſband; but, if ſhe were to anticipate their conſent, ſhe would be liable to a ſevere puniſhment.

Marriage is deemed illegal in China in the following caſes. 1. If the young woman has been betrothed to a young man, and preſents have been given and received by the parents of the intended huſband and wife. 2. If in the room of a beautiful young woman another be ſubſtituted of a diſagreeable figure; or if the daughter of a free man marry his ſlave; or if any one give his ſlave to a free woman, pretending to her parents that he is his ſon or relation. In theſe caſes

caſes the marriage is null and void; and all thoſe who have had any ſhare in making up the match are ſeverely puniſhed. 3. Every mandarin of letters is forbidden to form an alliance with any family reſiding in the province or city of which he is governor. 4. No Chineſe youth can enter into a ſtate of marriage during the time of mourning for his father or mother; and, if promiſes have been made before, they ceaſe immediately on that event taking place. After the uſual time of mourning is expired, the parents of the intended bride are obliged to write to thoſe of the young man, putting him in mind of his engagement. 5. Marriage is alſo ſuſpended when a family experiences any ſevere misfortune, and even if a near relation were thrown into priſon; though this may be ſet aſide, provided the unfortunate perſon give his conſent. 6. Two brothers cannot marry two ſiſters; nor is a widower at liberty to marry his ſon to the daughter of a widow whom he chooſes for his own wife. A man is alſo forbidden to marry any of his own relations, however diſtant the degree of conſanguinity may be between them.

In China every father of a family is reſponſible for the conduct of his children, and even of his domeſtics; all thoſe faults being imputed to him which it was his duty to have prevented. Every father has the power of ſelling his ſon, "provided (ſays the law) the ſon has a right of ſelling himſelf." This cuſtom, however, is barely tolerated among the middling and inferior ranks; and all are forbidden to ſell them to comedians, or people of infamous character or very mean ſtations.

In China a ſon is a minor during the whole life-time, and is even liable for the debts contracted by his father, thoſe for gaming only excepted. Adoption is authoriſed by law, and the adopted child immediately enters into all the rights of a lawful ſon; only the law gives a right to the father of making a few diſpoſitions in favour of his real children. The children, whether adopted or not, cannot ſucceed to the dignity or titles of their father, though they may to his eſtate. The emperor alone can confer honours; and even then they muſt be reſigned when the perſon attains the age of ſeventy; tho' this reſignation is conſidered as an advice rather than a law. The will of a father cannot be ſet aſide in China on account of any informality; nor can any mother in this empire make a will.

Though the Chineſe laws authoriſe ſlavery, yet the power of the maſter extends only to thoſe matters which concern his own ſervice; and he would be puniſhed with death for taking advantage of his power to debauch the wife of his ſlave.

By the laws of China, huſbandmen are exempt from paying taxes after they have begun to till the earth to the beginning of harveſt.

In criminal matters every perſon accuſed muſt be examined before five or ſix tribunals; and whoſe enquiries are directed not only againſt him, but againſt his accuſer, and the witneſſes that appear in the cauſe. He is, however, obliged to remain in priſon during the proceſs: but Chineſe priſons are not horrible dungeons like thoſe of ſo many other nations; they are ſpacious, and have even a degree of convenience. One of the mandarins is obliged to inſpect them frequently; and this he does with the greater punctuality, as he muſt anſwer for thoſe who are ſick. He is obliged to ſee them properly treated, to ſend for phyſicians, and to ſupply them with medicines at the emperor's expence. If any of them die, he muſt inform the emperor, who perhaps will order ſome of the higher mandarins to examine whether the former has diſcharged his duty faithfully or not.

The ſlighteſt puniſhment in China is the baſtinado; and the number of blows is to be determined by the degree of the offender's guilt. Twenty is the loweſt number; and in this caſe the puniſhment is conſidered as having nothing infamous in it, but being only a ſimple paternal correction. In this way the emperor ſometimes orders it to be inflicted on his courtiers; which does not prevent them from being afterwards received into favour, and as much reſpected as before. Every mandarin may inflict the baſtinado when any one forgets to ſalute him, or when he ſits in judgment in public. The inſtrument of correction is called pan-tſee, and is a piece of bamboo a little flatted,

broad at the bottom, and poliſhed at the upper extremity, in order to manage it more eaſily with the hand. When the puniſhment is to be inflicted, the magiſtrate ſits gravely behind a table, having on it a bag filled with ſmall ſticks. The mandarin then takes out one of the ſticks, and throws it into the hall of audience. On this the culprit is ſeized and ſtretched out with his belly towards the ground; his breeches are pulled down to his heels, and an athletic domeſtic applies five ſmart blows. If the judge draws another ſtick from the bag, another officer ſucceeds, and beſtows five more blows; and ſo on, until the judge makes no more ſignals. When the puniſhment is over, the criminal muſt throw himſelf on his knees, incline his body three times to the earth, and thank the judge for the care he takes of his education.

For faults of a higher nature, the carrying of a wooden collar, called by the Portugueſe the cangue, is inflicted. This machine is compoſed of two pieces of wood hollowed out in the middle, which, when put together, leave ſufficient room for the neck. Theſe are laid upon the ſhoulders of the criminal, and joined together in ſuch a manner that he can neither ſee his feet nor put his hands to his mouth; ſo that he is incapable of eating without the aſſiſtance of another. This diſagreeable burden he is obliged to carry day and night; its weight is from fifty to two hundred pounds, according to the enormity of the crime, to which the time of carrying it is alſo proportioned. For robbery, breaking the peace, or diſturbing a family, or being a notorious gambler, it is generally carried three months. During all this time the criminal is not allowed to take ſhelter in his own houſe, but is ſtationed for a certain ſpace of time, either in ſome public ſquare, the gate of a city or temple, or perhaps even of the tribunal where he was condemned. On the expiration of his term of puniſhment, he is again brought before the judge, who exhorts him in a friendly manner to amend; and, after giving him twenty ſound blows, diſcharges him.

Baniſhment is inflicted for crimes of a heavy nature inferior to homicide, and the duration is often for life, if the criminals be ſent into Tartary. Some culprits are condemned to drag the royal barks for three years, or to be branded in the cheeks with a hot iron, indicating the nature of their tranſgreſſions. Robbery between relations is more ſeverely puniſhed than any other; and that is accounted the moſt atrocious where younger brothers or nephews appropriate to themſelves beforehand any part of the ſucceſſion in which they have a right to ſhare with their elder brothers or nephews.

Information againſt a father or mother, grandfather or grandmother, uncle or elder brother, even though the accuſation be juſt, is puniſhed with one hundred blows of the pan-tſee, and three years baniſhment. If the accuſation be falſe, it is puniſhed with death. Deficiency in proper filial reſpect to a father, mother, grandfather, or grandmother, is puniſhed with one hundred blows of the pan-tſee; abuſive language to theſe relations is death by ſtrangling; to ſtrike them is puniſhed by beheading; and, if any one preſumes to hurt or maim them, his fleſh is torn from his bones with red hot pincers, and he is cut into a thouſand pieces. Abuſing an elder brother is puniſhed with one hundred blows of the pan-tſee; ſtriking him, with the puniſhment of exile.

Homicide, even though accidental, is puniſhed with death in China. A rope about ſix or ſeven feet in length, with a running nooſe, is thrown over the criminal's head; and a couple of domeſtics belonging to the tribunal pull it ſtrongly in different directions. They then ſuddenly quit it, and in a few moments give a ſecond pull; a third is ſeldom neceſſary to finiſh the buſineſs. Beheading is accounted in China the moſt diſhonourable of all puniſhments, and is reſerved only for deſperate aſſaſſins, or thoſe who commit ſome crime equally atrocious with murder. To be cut in a thouſand pieces is a puniſhment inflicted only upon ſtate criminals or rebellious ſubjects. It is performed by tying the criminal to a poſt, ſcalping the ſkin from the head, and pulling it over the eyes. The executioner then tears the fleſh from different parts of the unhappy wretch's body; and never quits this horrible employment

ployment till mere fatigue obliges him to give over: the remains of the body are then left to the barbarous ſpectators, who finiſh what he has begun. Though this puniſhment has been inflicted by ſome emperors with all the dreadful circumſtances juſt mentioned, the law orders only the criminal's belly to be opened, his body to be cut into ſeveral pieces, and then thrown into a ditch or river.

The torture, both ordinary and extraordinary, is uſed in China. The former is applied to the hands or feet: for the hands, ſmall pieces of wood are applied diagonally between the fingers of the criminal; his fingers are then tied cloſe with cords, and he is left ſome time in that painful ſituation. The torture for the feet is ſtill worſe. An inſtrument, conſiſting of three croſs pieces of wood, is provided, that in the middle being fixed, the others moveable. The feet of the criminal are then put into this machine, which ſqueezes them ſo cloſe that the ancle-bones become flat. The extraordinary torture conſiſts in making ſmall gaſhes in the body, and then tearing off the ſkin like thongs. It is never applied but for ſome great crime, ſuch as treaſon, or where the criminal's guilt has been clearly proved, and it is neceſſary to make him diſcover his accomplices.

Notwithſtanding theſe dreadful puniſhments, M. Groſier is at great pains to prove that the laws of the Chineſe, with regard to criminal matters, are extremely mild. "One law (ſays he) will no doubt appear exceedingly ſevere and rigorous; it inflicts the puniſhment of death on thoſe who uſe pearls. Thoſe who read the hiſtory of China will be apt to fall into certain miſtakes reſpecting the penal laws of that nation. Some of its ſovereigns have indulged themſelves in gratifying ſanguinary caprices which were not authoriſed by the laws, and which have often been confounded with them; but theſe princes are even yet ranked among the number of tyrants, and their names are ſtill abhorred and deteſted throughout the whole empire. The Chineſe, in their criminal procedure, have a great advantage over all other nations: it is almoſt impoſſible that an innocent man ſhould ever become a victim to a falſe accuſation: in ſuch caſes the accuſer and witneſſes are expoſed to too much danger. The ſlowneſs of the proceſs, and the numberleſs reviſions it undergoes, are another ſafeguard for the accuſed. In ſhort, no ſentence of death is ever carried into execution until it has been approved and confirmed by the emperor. A fair copy of the whole proceſs is laid before him; a number of other copies are alſo made out, both in the Chineſe and Tartan languages, which the emperor ſubmits to the examination of a like number of doctors, either Tartars or Chineſe. When the crime is of great enormity, and clearly proved, the emperor writes with his own hand at the bottom of the ſentence, "When you receive this order, let it be executed without delay." In caſes where the crime, though puniſhable by death according to law, is ranked only in the ordinary claſs, the emperor writes at the bottom of the ſentence, "Let the criminal be detained in priſon, and executed in autumn;" that being the ſeaſon in which they are generally executed, and all on the ſame day.

The emperor of China never ſigns an order for the execution of a criminal till he has prepared himſelf by faſting. Like other monarchs he has the power of giving pardons; but in this reſpect is much more limited than any other. The only caſes in which the Chineſe monarch can remit the puniſhment inflicted by law are, 1. To the ſon of a widow who has not married again; 2. To the heir of an ancient family; 3. The deſcendants of great men or citizens who have deſerved well of their country; and laſtly, The ſons or grandſons of a mandarin, who has become illuſtrious, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by faithfully diſcharging the duties of his office. Neither a child nor a man of very advanced age, can be cited before a tribunal. The ſon of a very aged father and mother is pardoned, if private property or the public peace be not hurt by giving him a pardon; and if the ſons of ſuch a father and mother be all guilty, or accomplices in the ſame crime, the youngeſt is pardoned in order to comfort his parents.

In China the accuſed are always treated with tenderneſs and lenity, being

ing accounted innocent until their guilt be clearly proved; and even then, liberty excepted, they are ſcarce allowed to want for any thing. A jailor is puniſhed who behaves rigorouſly towards his priſoners; and the judges muſt likewiſe anſwer at their peril for any additions to the ſeverity of the law; depoſition being the ſlighteſt puniſhment inflicted on them.

Subſtitution is ſometimes allowed by the laws of China; ſo that the near relation of a guilty perſon may put himſelf in the criminal's place, provided, however, that the chaſtiſement be ſlight, and the accuſed his ancient friend. The ſons, grandſons, wife, and brothers, of a baniſhed Chineſe, are allowed to follow him into exile; and the relations of all perſons are permitted to viſit them in priſon, and to give them every aſſiſtance in their power; to do which good offices they are even encouraged, inſtead of being prevented, as in ſome countries.

(To be continued.)

OF GRANARIES, AND THE PRESERVATION OF CORN.

EGYPT was anciently the moſt fertile of all countries in corn; as appears both from ſacred and profane hiſtory. It furniſhed a good part of the people ſubject to the Roman empire, and was called the dry-nurſe of Rome and Italy. Britain, France, and Poland, ſeem now in the place of Egypt, and with their ſuperfluities ſupport a good part of Europe.

Corn is very different from fruits, with reſpect to the manner of its preſervation; and is capable of being preſerved in public granaries, for preſſing occaſions, and of being kept for ſeveral centuries.—A little time after the ſiege of Metz, under Henry II. of France, in the year 1578, the Duc d'Eſpernon laid up vaſt ſtores of corn in the citadel; which was preſerved in good plight to the year 1707, when the French king and his retinue, paſſing that way, ate bread baked thereof.

The chief thing that contributes to the preſervation of corn is, a cruſt which forms on its ſurface, by the germination of the grain next underneath, to the thickneſs of an inch and a half. On that at Metz people walked, without its giving the leaſt way. At Sedan was a granary cut in a rock, wherein a heap of corn was preſerved a hundred and ten years: it was covered with a cruſt a foot thick.

For the preſervation of corn, the firſt method is to let it remain in the ſpike; the only expedient for conveying it to the iſlands and provinces of America. The inhabitants of thoſe countries ſave it in the ear, and raiſe it to maturity by that precaution: but this method of preſerving it is attended with ſeveral inconveniences among us; corn is apt to root or ſprout, if the leaſt moiſture is in the heap; the rats likewiſe infeſt it, and our want of ſtraw alſo obliges us to ſeparate the grain from the ear. The ſecond is to turn out and winnow it frequently; or to pour it through a trough or mill-hopper from one floor to another; being thus moved and aired every fifteen days; for the firſt ſix months, it will require leſs labour for the future, if lodged in a dry place: but if, through neglect, mites ſhould be allowed to ſlide into the heap, they will ſoon reduce the corn to a heap of duſt: this muſt be avoided by moving the corn anew, and rubbing the places adjacent with oils and herbs, whoſe ſtrong odour may chace them away; for which garlic and dwarf-elder are very effectual; they may likewiſe be expoſed to the open ſun, which immediately kills them. When the corn has been preſerved from all impurities for the ſpace of two years, and has exhaled all its fires, it may be kept for fifty or even a hundred years, by lodging it in pits covered with ſtrong planks cloſely joined together: but the ſafer way is to cover the heap with quick lime, which ſhould be diſſolved by ſprinkling it over with a ſmall quantity of water; this cauſes the grains to ſhoot to the depth of two or three fingers; and incloſes them with an incruſtation, as above-mentioned, through which neither air nor inſects can penetrate.

The beſt granaries are built of brick, with quarters of timber wrought in the inſide, to which the boards may be nailed, with which the inſide of the granary

granary muſt be lined ſo cloſe to the bricks, that there may not be any room left for vermin themſelves. There may be many ſtories one above another, which ſhould be near the one to the other; becauſe the ſhallower the corn lies, it is the better and more eaſily turned.

The two great cautions to be obſerved in the erecting of granaries are, to make them ſufficiently ſtrong, and to expoſe them to the moſt drying winds. The ordering of the corn in many parts of England, particularly in Kent, is thus: To ſeparate it from the duſt and other impurities after it is threſhed, they toſs it with ſhovels from one end to the other of a long and large room; the lighter ſubſtances fall down in the middle of the room, and the corn only is carried from ſide to ſide or end to end of it. After this they ſcreen the corn, and then, bringing it into the granaries, it is ſpread about half a foot thick, and turned from time to time about twice in a week; once a week they alſo repeat the ſcreening it. This ſort of management they continue about two months, and after that they lay it a foot thick for two months more; and in this time they turn it once a week, or twice if the ſeaſon be damp, and now and then ſcreen it again. After about five or ſix months they raiſe it to two feet thickneſs in the heaps, and then they turn it once or twice in a month, and ſcreen it now and then. After a year they lay it two and a half or three feet deep, and turn it once in three weeks or a month, and ſcreen it proportionably. When it has lain two years or more, they turn it once in two months, and ſcreen it once a quarter; and, how long ſoever it is kept, the oftener the turning and ſcreening is repeated, the better the grain will be found to keep.—It is proper to leave an area of a yard wide on every ſide of the heap of corn, and other empty ſpaces, into which they turn and toſs the corn as often as they find occaſion. In Kent they make two ſquare holes at each end of the floor, and one round in the middle, by means of which they throw the corn out of the upper into the lower rooms, and ſo up again, to turn and air it the better. Their ſcreens are made with two partitions, to ſeparate the duſt from the corn, which falls into a bag, and when ſufficiently full this is thrown away, the pure and good corn remaining behind. Corn has by theſe means been kept in our granaries thirty years; and it is obſerved, that the longer it is kept the more flour it yields in proportion to the corn, and the purer and whiter the bread is, the ſuperfluous humidity only evaporating in the keeping. At Zurick in Swiſſerland, they keep corn eighty years, or longer, by the ſame ſort of methods.

The public granaries at Dantzic are ſeven, eight, or nine, ſtories high, having a funnel in the midſt of every floor to let down the corn from one to another. They are built ſo ſecurely, that though every way ſurrounded with water the corn contracts no damp, and the veſſels have the convenience of coming up to the walls for their lading. The Ruſſians preſerve their corn in ſubterranean granaries of the figure of a ſugar-loaf, wide below and narrow at top: the ſides are well plaſtered, and the top covered with ſtones. They are very careful to have the corn well dried before it is laid into theſe ſtorehouſes, and often dry it by means of ovens; the ſummer dry weather being too ſhort to effect it ſufficiently.—Dantzic is the grand ſtorehouſe or repoſitory of all the fruitful kingdom of Poland. The wheat, barley, and rye, of a great part of the country are there laid up in parcels of twenty, thirty, or ſixty, laſts in a chamber, according to the ſize of the room; and this they keep turning every day or two, to keep it ſweet and fit for ſhipping. A thunder-ſtorm has ſometimes been of very terrible conſequences to theſe ſtores; all the corn of the growth of former years having been found ſo much altered by one night's thunder, that, though over-night it was dry, fit for ſhipping or keeping, and proper for uſes of any ſort, yet in the morning it was found clammy and ſticking. In this caſe there is no remedy but the turning of all ſuch corn three or four times a day for two months or longer; in which time it will ſometimes come to itſelf, though ſometimes not. This effect of thunder and lightning is only obſerved to take place in ſuch corn as is not a year old, or has not

ſweated

ſweated thoroughly in the ſtraw before it was threſhed out. The latter inconvenience is eaſily prevented by a timely care; but as to the former, all that can be done is carefully to examine all ſtores of the laſt year's corn after every thunder-ſtorm, that, if any of this have been ſo affected, it may be cured in time; for a neglect of turning will certainly utterly deſtroy it.

According to Vitruvius's rules, a granary ſhould always be at the top of a houſe, and have its openings only to the north or eaſt, that the corn may not be expoſed to the damp winds from the ſouth and weſt, which are very deſtructive to it; whereas the contrary ones are very neceſſary and wholeſome to it, ſerving to cool and dry it from all external humidity, from whatever cauſe. There muſt alſo be openings in the roof to be ſet open in dry weather, partly to let in the freſh air, and partly to let out the warm effluvia which are often emitted by the corn. The covering of the roofs ſhould always be of tiles, becauſe in the worſt ſeaſons, when the other openings cannot be ſafe, there will always be a conſiderable inlet for freſh air, and a way out for the vapours by their joinings, which are never cloſe. If there happen to be any windows to the ſouth, great care muſt be taken to ſhut them up in moiſt weather, and in the time of the hot ſouthern winds. There muſt never be a cellar, or any other damp place, under a granary, nor ſhould it ever be built over ſtables; for in either of theſe caſes the corn will certainly ſuffer by the vapours, and be made damp in one, and ill-taſted in the other.

The preſervation of grain from the ravages of inſects may be beſt effected by timely and frequent ſcreening, and ventilation; as little or no inconvenience will follow corn or malt lodged dry, but what evidently reſults from a neglect of theſe precautions. For, whether the obvious damage ariſe from the weevil, the moth, or the beetle, that damage has ceaſed at the time the vermin make their appearance under either of theſe ſpecies, they being, when in this laſt ſtate of exiſtence, only propagators of their reſpective kinds of vermiculi; which, while they continue in that form, do the miſchief.

In this laſt or inſect ſtate, they eat little, their principal buſineſs being to depoſit their eggs, which unerring inſtinct prompts them to do where large collections of grain furniſh food for their ſucceſſors while in a vermicular ſtate. It is therefore the buſineſs of induſtry to prevent future generations of theſe ravagers, by deſtroying the eggs previous to their hatching; and this is beſt accompliſhed by frequent ſcreening, and expoſure to draughts of wind or freſh air. By frequently ſtirring the grain, the coheſion of their ova is broken, and the nidus of thoſe minute worms is deſtroyed, which on hatching collect together, and ſpin or weave numerous neſts of a cobweb-like ſubſtance for their ſecurity. To theſe neſts they attach, by an infinity of ſmall threads, many grains of corn together, firſt for their protection, and then for their food. When their habitations are broken and ſeparated by the ſcreen, they fall through its ſmall interſtices, and may be eaſily removed from the granary with the duſt. Thoſe that eſcape an early ſcreening will be deſtroyed by ſubſequent ones, while the grain is but little injured; and the corn will acquire thereby a ſuperior purity. But by inattention to this, and ſometimes by receiving grain already infected into the granary, theſe vermin, particularly the weevil, will in a ſhort time ſpread themſelves in that ſtate every where upon its ſurface, and darken even the walls by their number. Under ſuch circumſtances a hen or hens with new-hatched chickens, if turned on the heap, will traverſe, without feeding (or very ſparingly ſo) on the corn, wherever they ſpread; and are ſeemingly inſatiable in the purſuit of theſe inſects. When the numbers are reduced within reach, a hen will fly up againſt the walls, and bruſh them down with her wings, while her chickens ſeize them with the greateſt avidity. This being repeated as often as they want food, the whole ſpecies will in a day or two be deſtroyed. Of the phalæna (moth), and the ſmall beetle, they ſeem equally voracious: on which account they may be deemed the moſt uſeful inſtruments in nature for eradicating theſe noxious and deſtructive vermin.

POETRY.

POETRY.

BRITANNIA TRIUMPHANT.

A Loyal Song.

THE ſhepherd's reed no more delights,
And rural ſounds are heard no more;
The cauſe of freedom now invites
Each youth to leave his native ſhore;
For Britiſh youth are firſt to go,
To puniſh France their ancient foe.

Emerg'd from ſlav'ry, abject France
The ſtandard of falſe freedom rear'd;
And ſtill led on the madd'ning dance*,
Where'er their conquering arms appear'd,
'Till Britiſh youth, &c.

Through It'ly's clime, Batavia's meads,
The rage for patriotiſm burn'd,
(Falſe patriotiſm, which oft miſleads;)
But Britiſh arms the tide ſoon turn'd.
For Britiſh youth, &c.

Led on by Fred'ric,‖ Albion's boaſt,
Britain's firm ſons ſhall never yield;
Shall never fear proud Gallia's hoſt,
But die or conquer in the field.
For Britiſh youth, &c.

Come then my hearts at once ſtrike hands,
And ſtrait embark in freedom's cauſe;
With ſpeed then join thoſe gallant bands
Who fight for George and England's laws.
For Britiſh youth, &c.

Let not domeſtic cares retard;
Your children are your country's care;
The widows' plaints ſhall meet regard,
Nor ſorrow's ſighs be loſt in air§.
For Britiſh youth, &c.

By this inſpir'd, then dare the field;
Gallia ſhall fly the dreaded blow;
'Tis glorious now the ſword to wield,
And cruſh the tyrant murd'rers low.
For Britiſh youth, &c.

Returning thence with conqueſt crown'd,
Your feats ſhall grace the Britiſh page.
Britons for valour are renown'd,
Whoſe courage ſhone through every age.
For Britiſh youth, &c.

The trumpet then no more is heard,
Nor war's dire clang diſturbs the plain.
The ſhepherd's reed ſhall be preferr'd,
And rural ſounds ſhall pleaſe again.
For Britiſh youth, &c.

* *Alluding to their dances round the tree of liberty.*

‖ *The Duke of York.*

§ *Alluding to the liberal ſubſcriptions for the relief of widows and children of ſeamen and ſoldiers.*

THE LAND OF LIBERTY.

By Mr. Cotterel.

SWEET Liberty, celeſtial flow'r—
Thou bloom of heaven, plant divine;
Whoſe fragrance fills Britannia's bow'r,
Bleſt ſpot, the ſeat of arts and arms,
Of matchleſs heroes, love's ſoft charms;
By mighty valour her's, by nature thine.

CHORUS.

Hail! England, hail! reſounds the ſky—
Hail, George, and ſacred liberty;
To thy great throne ſhall France bow down,
Appall'd her guilty ſons ſhall fly,
At Briton's univerſal cry,
Or give me death or victory.

When by the peſtilential breath
Of tyranny, through mighty Rome,
Thou felt'ſt the with'ring bane of death,
Thy purer ſeed to heaven flew,
Till here attracted, flouriſh'd, grew;—
To grateful ſoil tranſplanted, ſmil'd on home.

Hail, &c.

Of late perfidious Gallia dreamt
To taſte thy virtues, prove thy good;
All earth approv'd the great attempt—
All earth abhorring loaths her now,
And peace is fled, and faith nor thou
Canſt fix thy ſacred root in monarch's blood.

Hail, &c.

Confeſs'd thy radiant luſtre ſhines
In Albion's envied iſle alone;
Here mercy's arms round freedom twines,
And willing ſubjects laws obey,
Which juſtice with impartial ſway
Preſcribes and finds a father on the throne.

CHARLOTTE: An Epigram.

WHEN Charlotte firſt increas'd the Cyprian corps,
She aſk'd 100 pounds—I gave her more:
Next year, to 50 ſunk the courſe of trade;
I thought it now extravagant, but paid.
Six months elaps'd: 'twas 20 guineas then;
In vain I pray'd, and preſs'd, and proffer'd ten.
Another quarter barely ſlipp'd away,
She begg'd four guineas of me at the play:
I boggled; her demand ſtill humbler grew,
'Twas "Thank you kindly, ſir," for two pounds two."
Next in the ſtreet her favours I might win
For a few ſhillings and a glaſs of gin:
—And now, (tho' ſad and wonderful it ſounds,)
I would not touch her for 100 pounds.

FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

Authentic Account of the SURRENDER of VALENCIENNES to his Royal Highneſs FREDERIC DUKE of YORK, on the 27th of July, 1793. (With a magnificent Repreſentation of the Siege, and a beautiful Portrait of his Royal Highneſs.)

GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

WHITEHALL, *July* 31.

CAPTAIN CALVERT, of the Coldſtream regiment of guards, aide-de-camp to his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, arrived this morning with diſpatches from Colonel Sir James Murray, Bart. adjutant-general to the forces under his royal highneſs's command, to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, of which the following are copies.

SIR, ESTREUX, *July* 26, 1793.

I am happy to have the honour of informing you, that laſt night not only the attacks of the covered way of the horn-work, and of the advanced fleche by St. Sauve, were attended with ſucceſs, but that poſſeſſion has been obtained of the horn-work itſelf, in which the troops are now completely eſtabliſhed.

Three attacks were formed; one upon the ſaliant angle of the ravelin of the horn-work, one upon the ſaliant angle of the half-moon baſtion on the right, and one upon the fleche. Nine hundred men were deſtined for each attack. In each of the two firſt, an advanced guard was formed of 150 men, followed by 300, with the neceſſary workmen and miners, who were ſupported by the reſt of the column. The troops employed on the attack upon the right were divided into three parts, one of which turned the fleche to the right, another to the left, and the third advanced in front. The column deſtined for the attack of the ſaliant angle of the ravelin was compoſed of Britiſh, Hanoverian, and Heſſian, troops; the other two of Auſtrians. One hundred and fifty men of the brigade of guards, under the command of Colonel Leigh, formed the advanced party. They were followed by 150 men of the brigade of the line, with an equal number of Hanoverians, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Doyle; 150 Hanoverians and 300 Heſſians compoſed the reſt of the column. Colonel Langerke of the Heſſians, and Lieutenant-colonel Offney of the Hanoverians, commanded theſe troops. A detachment of the company of artificers, under Captain Sutherland, accompanied this column, and performed the duty allotted to them with great activity and reſolution. This attack was commanded by Major-general Abercromby. The Auſtrian Lieutenant-general Erbach commanded the whole.

The ſpringing of the globes of compreſſion was the ſignal for the attack. Of theſe there were three: one towards the ſaliant angle of the ravelin; one towards that of the half-moon baſtion upon the right; and one betwixt theſe two. They were ſprung at ſhort intervals from one another; the firſt at nine o'clock. The two columns upon the left advanced with the utmoſt alacrity, ruſhing out from the ſap which had been carried the preceding nights, to within a very ſmall diſtance of the creſt of the glacis. The enemy were almoſt inſtantaneouſly driven from the covered way. They abandoned the horn-work, and, as it afterwards appeared, all the outworks of the place. The miners deſcended into the ditch, and got poſſeſſion of thoſe of the enemy's mines which had eſcaped the effects of the globes of compreſſion. Theſe were found loaded, and ſeveral of the miners were taken. One fougas was ſprung, but happily without occaſioning any loſs. The horn-work was entered by the gorge. The probability of this had been foreſeen; but it was reckoned uſeleſs to attempt a lodgment, for want of proper communication; and indeed nearly impoſſible to effect it. The original orders given for this caſe were, therefore, to ſpike the guns and retire. A paſſage being however diſcovered, which went under ground from the ditch into the work, and no enemy appearing in the counter-garde, which immediately overlooks it, to interrupt the workmen, it was determined by his royal highneſs to take the advantage of the moment. The lodgment was made before day-light; and the troops are now, I apprehend, in perfect ſecurity. This is of the greater conſequence, as the horn-work is found to be ſtrongly mined, and it muſt, therefore, in the common line of operations, have required a conſiderable time, and occaſioned loſs of men in courſe, to have gained poſſeſſion of it. Meaſures are taking, with all poſſible expedition, to profit of this ſucceſs, by erecting a battery, for the purpoſe of battering in breach the counter-garde, which is between the horn-work and the body of the place.

His

His royal highneſs has expreſſed himſelf to be highly pleaſed with the gallantry and good conduct of Major-general Abercromby, Colonel Leigh, and Lieutenant-colonel Doyle, as well as with that which was ſhewn by Colonel Langerke and Lieutenant-colonel Offney. The conduct of the other officers, and that of the troops in general, as well in regard to their diſcipline, and the order which they preſerved, as to the gallantry of their behaviour, merits every commendation. Lieutenant-colonel Count Dietrickſtein, captains Count Orlandini and Thiangie, of the Auſtrian corps of engineers, were attached to the left column, and their conduct is ſpoken of by Major-general Abercromby in terms of the ſtrongeſt approbation.

The attack of the fleche upon the right was carried on with equal vigour and ſucceſs: ſeveral of the enemy were killed, and twelve taken in the work. Small parties made their way into the main ditch.

The Croatz, upon the ſide of Mont Anzin and St. Sauve, carried ſeveral detached works, killed about fifty of the enemy, and took thirty priſoners.

Major de Drieberg, commandant of the ſecond battalion of Hanoverian grenadiers, advanced with a detachment from Briquet to the creſt of the glacis upon that ſide, where he remained till day-break, kept up a fire upon the works, and made a uſeful diverſion.

The total loſs of the combined troops upon this important occaſion does not exceed one hundred and fifty men and officers, killed and wounded. I incloſe the return of the Britiſh. The Hanoverians had one man killed and ſix wounded; the Heſſians none. His royal highneſs regrets the loſs of a brave officer in Enſign Tollemache, who was killed by a ſhell in the third parallel.

I incloſe the copies of the ſummons ſent by his royal highneſs this morning to the town.

SUMMONS TO THE COMMANDER.

The wiſh to prevent as much as poſſible irremediable misfortunes was the motive of the propoſal I made to you on the 14th of June. Either you thought yourſelf able effectually to reſiſt our attacks, or flattered yourſelf with the hopes of aſſiſtance, and did not liſten to it. But now, that both theſe errors are deſtroyed, I offer to you from the ſame motive of humanity, a capitulation, which will ſave your honour and what remains of their property to the unfortunate victims of your obſtinacy. Are you determined to force us, by the neceſſity of war, completely to deſtroy a beautiful town, or will you preſerve what has hitherto eſcaped?

Lamenting the dreadful conſequences of an obſtinacy for which you have no longer any legitimate excuſe, either military or political, I muſt obſerve to you that your anſwer will irrevocably decide the fate of Valenciennes. You will not be admitted to capitulate after to-day: I ſhall no longer liſten to any propoſals; and, the town being taken by ſtorm, you know too well the terrible conſequences it has to expect. (Signed)

FREDERIC DUKE OF YORK,
Commander in chief of the beſieging armies.

SUMMONS TO THE MUNICIPALITY.

I ſend you herewith a copy of what I have written to the commander of your town, and inform you that he will expoſe you to the moſt dreadful fate, if he ſtill perſiſts in his refuſal to accept the offer of a capitulation, by which the honour of the garriſon, and what remains of your property, will be preſerved. You will owe this fate to an obſtinacy very ill underſtood, as you muſt be ſenſible that, in the preſent circumſtances, you can neither defend the place, nor expect any aſſiſtance. His proclamation of the 21ſt of June is a libel againſt the armies now before your walls. The reputation of theſe brave and well-diſciplined troops cannot ſuffer from his calumnies; but you have every thing to fear from the vengeance of ſoldiers provoked by ſuch publications. It will not be in the power of the moſt humane chief to ſcreen you from it, if you oblige us to come to theſe extremities. Be upon your guard againſt inſinuations, by which you would ſacrifice all you poſſeſs to the intereſt of one; and let thoſe among you who are willing and able to act for the beſt, prevent, by a prudent reſolution, the devaſtation and carnage which would be the conſequence of a reſiſtance uſeleſsly continued for a few days. This day expired, your commander will be no longer admitted to capitulate. If your town is taken by ſtorm, it will be plundered, and nothing can prevent the maſſacre of both ſoldiers and inhabitants. May this dreadful example, which I wiſh you to avoid, be a leſſon to other towns, and give to the inhabitants, well inclined, energy enough to avoid a fate, which thoſe of your's, by an unpardonable weakneſs, expoſe themſelves to ſhare equally with the perverſe. (Signed)

FREDERIC DUKE OF YORK,
Commander in chief of the beſieging armies.

General Ferrand to Frederic Duke of York, Commanding the combined Army beſieging Valenciennes.

Neither the conſtituted authorities, the garriſon, nor myſelf, have been able to terminate the important object that you wiſhed for, in the letter which you did me the honour to write to me this morning the 26th inſtant, reſpecting the ſurrender of the place which I have the honour to command.

We demand of you, ſir, a delay of twenty-four hours, to take its date from the time that I addreſs to you this demand. If this is agreeable to you, your troops and mine ſhall each of them reſpectively remain at the poſts which belong to them, without any other communication than by trumpet.

If you conſent to this, the firing ſhall ceaſe on each ſide, until the time of the delay above demanded ſhall have expired.

Valenciennes, ſix o'clock in the evening, 26th of July, 1793, 2d of the Fr. R.

FERRAND,
General of the diviſion, commander in chief.

Second Letter from his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York to General Ferrand.

In conſequence of the anſwer you have juſt given to my propoſal of this morning, I have no difficulty in conſenting to a truce, to begin at the moment when a firing on your part ſhall ceaſe, and to end to-morrow the 27th, at four o'clock in the afternoon; upon condition, however, that all communication ſhall be forbidden, during that interval, between the people occupying our reſpective poſts, and that your anſwer ſhall be addreſſed to me to-morrow at the ſaid hour, by the gate of Cardon only, by which this is ſent to you.

ESTREUX, 26th July, ten o'clock in the evening. (Signed)

FREDERIC DUKE OF YORK,
Commander in chief of the armies before Valenciennes.

Second Letter from Sir James Murray.

SIR, ESTREUX, *July* 28, 1793.

It is with the utmoſt ſatisfaction that I have the honour of acquainting you with the ſurrender of the town and citadel of Valenciennes to the combined army under the command of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York.

The ſucceſsful attack on the 25th, and the lodgement in the horn-work, ſeem to have made a ſtrong impreſſion upon the enemy, and to have diſpoſed them to receive in a favourable manner the ſummons which was ſent by his royal highneſs to the general and inhabitants upon the following day.

The alacrity with which the troops have undergone the hardſhips and ſevere duty of the ſiege, as well as the reſolution which they diſplayed in ſituations of danger, deſerve the higheſt praiſe.

Batteries were allotted at different times to be worked by the royal artillery, and every commendation is due to Major Congreve and to the officers and men of that corps, who have upon this occaſion fully ſupported the reputation which they have ſo long enjoyed.

Though Colonel Moncrieff was not charged with the direction of the ſiege, the greateſt advantages have been derived from his profeſſional knowledge, activity, and zeal, particularly in taking and keeping poſſeſſion of the horn-work.

I encloſe a return of the loſs of the Britiſh and Hanoverian troops during the whole of the ſiege, by which it appears, that the number of the killed and wounded of the former, as it ſtands at this moment, amounts to 90, including all ranks. Suppoſing the latter to have had ſlight wounds in the ſame proportion, the loſs at preſent will be about 150.

The moſt dangerous as well as the moſt laborious parts of the ſiege fell to the lot of the imperial forces. They have had about 1,300 officers and men killed and wounded; from which, however, the ſame deduction may be made.

Any farther particulars, which you may be deſirous to be informed of, will be explained by Captain Calvert, aide-de-camp to his royal highneſs, who was employed in carrying on the intercourſe relative to the capitulation of the town, and whoſe zeal and intelligence, upon this as well as upon many former occaſions, have been highly approved of by his royal highneſs.

I have the honour to be, &c.

JAMES MURRAY.

Total return of killed and wounded of the Britiſh troops, under the command of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, at the ſiege of Valenciennes.

Royal military artificers, 1 labourer killed; 1 enſign, 1 ſerjeant, 17 rank and file, 3 ſecond gunners, 1 labourer, killed; 1 captain, 3 lieutenants, 6 ſerjeants, 113 rank and file, 1 bombardier, 1 firſt gunner, 2 ſecond gunners, wounded. 18 rank and file dead of their wounds; 1 captain, 1 lieutenant, 4 ſerjeants, 53 rank and file, 1 bombardier, cured; 2 lieutenants, 2 ſerjeants, 44 rank and file, 1 firſt gunner, 2 ſecond gunners, under cure.

JAMES MURRAY, Adj. Gen.

Brigade of foot guards, 1ſt battalion 1ſt regiment. Enſign Tollemache killed; Captain Warde wounded (under cure.)

Ditto, 1ſt battalion Coldſtream regiment,

ment, Lieutenant-colonel the Earl of Cavan wounded (cured.)

Brigade of infantry of the line. Lieutenant Sterling of the flank battalion, ſlightly wounded (cured.)

Ditto, Lieutenant Dewar, of the 14th regiment, wounded (under cure.)

N. B. 11th Regiment light dragoons, 1 horſe killed, and one dead of wounds.

Total return of Hanoverian infantry killed and wounded at the taking of Valenciennes.

1 Non-commiſſioned officer, 2 drummers, 30 privates, killed; 3 officers, 6 non-commiſſioned officers, 2 drummers, 199 privates, wounded.

The ſiege of Valenciennes was of 44 days continuance. The place was inveſted on the 22d of May, the day the allies took poſſeſſion of the heights of Famars; the trenches were opened againſt it on the 14th of June; and the batteries of the firſt parallel on the 18th.—The only towns of importance between Valenciennes and Paris (a diſtance of about 140 miles) are Cambray, Perrone, and Senlis; all ſtrong places: before, however, the combined armies can reach the laſt place, they muſt croſs the river Oiſe.

Enſign Tollemache was the only ſon of Lady Bridget, and heir to the Scotch title of Earl of Dyſart. He was killed by the burſting of a ſhell, which blew him to pieces.—Lieutenant Ward was alſo wounded in two places, and Lieut. Dewar, of the 14th regiment, was ſo ſeverely wounded as to make his life deſpaired of.—His Royal Highneſs the Duke of York had a very narrow eſcape: an Auſtrian ſoldier was killed by a cannon-ſhot quite cloſe to him.—It is highly honourable to the Britiſh character, that the commander peremptorily refuſed to ſurrender to any other than the Duke of York, as the ſure means of protecting his garriſon, and the unarmed citizens of the place, from unneceſſary ſlaughter, which, from the violence of the Auſtrians and their ſanguinary enmity to the French, was to juſtly dreaded.

VALENCIENNES, *Auguſt* 1. This morning afforded one of the moſt pleaſing ſights the combined armies have experienced ſince taking the field---the evacuation of the garriſon of Valenciennes by the French, and the taking poſſeſſion of it by the Engliſh.---About ſeven in the morning, two field-pieces of artillery, carrying the Britiſh flag, commanded by Major Wright, the flank-companies of the guards, and light infantry, with the party that ſtormed the horn-work, arrived, and lined one ſide of the road leading from the gate of Cambray to Briquet; in the rear were the cavalry (Blues and Inniſkilling). The other ſide of the road was lined by Hanoverians and Auſtrians. It was not till between nine and ten o'clock that the French began their march, headed by General Ferrand, accompanied by his aid-de-camps. Their appearance was ſuch as to excite our pity more than our contempt; the centre rank of each regiment was compoſed of boys from 14 to 15, and the front and rear either of young or very old men badly clothed. In ſhort they were much worſe than thoſe from Condé. They marched out by regiments, with drums beating, colours flying, bayonets fixed, and matches lighted, till they arrived at Briquet, where each regiment laid down arms and proceeded on their march, having engaged, by the articles of capitulation, not to ſerve againſt the combined army during the war. The cavalry which followed the infantry was much ſuperior in every reſpect, and were perfectly well mounted. One of theſe two regiments conducted the king to the ſcaffold, and had gained poſſeſſion of his ſtud, which accounts for the circumſtance already alluded to. (The two regiments of cavalry were the 25th and the 26th.)

The garriſon being evacuated by one o'clock---the Duke of York, Prince de Cobourg, Princes Charles (the emperor's brother), Erneſt Adolphus, accompanied by General Ferraris, &c. paſſed through the line of troops, and entered by the Cambray gate; on their arrival, the principal magiſtrates met and conducted them to the Grand Place, where the windows were lined with inhabitants, particularly females, who welcomed the duke with clapping of hands, ſhouts of *Vive le Roi*, and *God ſave the King*: from thence they were conducted round the ramparts, and about two o'clock the gates were thrown open to the multitude of officers, &c. &c. who ſurrounded them.

Never it is believed was a town ſo effectually ſhattered, at leaſt that part of it which was oppoſed to our parallels.---Not a ſingle houſe left ſtanding, and indeed very few walls.---The ramparts are ſo effectually battered as to preſent viſible ſigns of breaches being made in the courſe of a very few hours, had the firing continued.---Fortunately for the lives of thouſands, it was not the caſe.

We expect to leave this for Dunkirk in the courſe of a few days; as a conſiderable train of heavy artillery is embarked at Woolwich for the purpoſe of beſieging it. The Auſtrians have refuſed us artillery, &c. &c. but mean to ſuppy us with 10,000 infantry; therefore, with this addition,

dition, it is ſuppoſed we ſhall act ſingly for the reſt of the campaign.

AUGUST 2. This morning the different regiments in camp fired a *feu de joye*, and at twelve o'clock the guns of the garriſon were fired three times, beginning with thoſe on the left of the gate of Tournay, and proceeding round from left to right. We do not expect to leave this till the return of the aid-de-camp (Capt. Calvert), therefore ſhall remain for ſome days in inactivity. I had almoſt forgot to mention, the Scots greys and royal regiment of dragoons were on the ground, in front of the different regiments, when they laid down their arms.

This morning the colours of the different regiments taken from the enemy were eſcorted to the head-quarters, by General Abercromby, Major Crauford, and two ſquadrons of the 11th light dragoons.—They were twelve in number.

As ſoon as the capitulation was ſigned, and the bulwarks occupied by our troops, the combined army changed its poſition. One part advanced towards Maubeuge and Queſnoy, to block up theſe two places. The corps of obſervation marched forward alſo.

Yeſterday his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York gave a grand dinner at his head-quarters to a vaſt number of general and field officers; and this day his royal highneſs, with Sir James Murray and ſeveral of his ſuite, dined with the Prince de Saxe Cobourg, when the future operations were ſettled.

While the Duke of York marches with his army towards Dunkirk and Calais; the Prince de Cobourg, reinforced by the Pruſſians, will march directly towards Paris.

The garriſon at Dunkirk, by the laſt accounts, is eſtimated at 14,000 men.

SURRENDER OF MENTZ.

Sunday morning, July 28th, at ten o'clock, the Earl of Yarmouth's ſervant arrived at the ſecretary of ſtate's office, with an official letter from his lordſhip, containing the important intelligence of the ſurrender of Mentz.

The capitulation was ſigned upon the 22d inſtant, by which it was agreed, that on the 24th the garriſon, conſiſting of 12,000, men ſhould march out with all the honours of war, under the expreſs condition that they ſhould not ſerve during the courſe of one year againſt the allied powers.—When the Pruſſians entered the place, they found that the garriſon had been for a conſiderable time deſtitute of neceſſaries; and ſo much ſo of medicines for the ſick and wounded, that by far the the greater part of the latter had died for want of proper care.—For ſeveral days previous to the capitulation the carnage on both ſides had been dreadful, the beſiegers and the beſieged being in many points within piſtol ſhot, and the latter making conſtant and deſperate ſallies.---The King of Pruſſia, it is now ſuppoſed, will divide his army into two bodies, the one under his own command, and the other under that of the Duke of Brunſwick, with a view of penetrating into Alſace and Lorraine at the ſame time.---A few hours after the ſurrender, the Pruſſian and the French ſoldiers were ſeen mingled in groups and dances in the moſt friendly and familiar manner.

The capture of Mentz diſpoſſeſſes the the French of a ſtrong-hold of moſt material concern to their deſigns upon the empire; and as, by their repulſe at Williamſtadt, they were driven out of Holland, their expulſion now again from Mentz will fairly rid Germany of them. A prodigious quantity of artillery and other implements of war were taken at Mentz.

Mentz, or Mayence, as it is called by the French, is in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and is the metropolis of the archbiſhopric of Mentz. It was formerly an Imperial city, but afterwards ſubject to its own prince, the archbiſhop. It ſtands on the river Rhine by the Maine, and is ſituate about 21 miles W. from Frankfort, about 28 miles N. of Worms, 48 N. W. of Heidelburgh, 66 E. of Treves, 74 S. E. of Cologne, 90 N. of Straſburgh, and 250 miles E. of Paris. In 1688, when this place received a French garriſon, it was of very inconſiderable ſtrength, but, during the winter, the garriſon, which conſiſted of ten or eleven thouſand men, put it in a much better ſtate of defence, and it was the next year taken by the Imperialiſts, under the command of the Duke of Lorraine, who however loſt upwards of 6000 men before he could get poſſeſſion of it: ſuch was the gallant defence made by this little garriſon, under the Marquis d'Uxelles, near 5000 of whom were ſlain. The beſieging army amounted to 50,000 men, by whom the place was inveſted on the 17th of June, and it ſurrendered on the 11th of September following. Since that period the place had been very conſiderably ren gthened.

ASSASSINATION OF MARAT.

Advices were received on Monday morning, July 15, from Paris of the murder of this moſt extraordinary perſon by the hand of a woman. It took place on Sunday

Sunday the 14th inſt. the particulars are nearly as follow :

On the Thurſday preceding, a woman of reſpectable appearance arrived at Paris from Caen in Normandy. On the two following days ſhe was buſied, it ſhould ſeem, in making enquiries reſpecting the various crimes imputed to her deſtined victim ; and, having ſatisfied herſelf reſpecting the truth, on the Sunday ſhe obtained an interview with Marat

She continued in converſation with him for ſome time, aſking his opinion of ſeveral perſons whom ſhe named ; and, on his averring them to be counter-revolutioniſts, ſhe inſtantly ſtabbed him, declaring that ſhe was then convinced that every thing that ſhe had heard of him was true. He died on the ſpot.---On this woman's being ſeized and interrogated, ſhe juſtified her conduct by declaring her conviction that Marat had been the cauſe of all the evils with which France had lately been afflicted ; ſhe ſeemed to glory in her act, and declared that ſhe had not been inſtigated by any perſon, and that no one was privy to it.

Thus periſhed a man, who has been a principal actor, if not the inſtigator, of more important events, within the laſt twelve months, than perhaps any other perſon in a ſimilar period of time. His aſſaſſinator was a native of Caen, Charlotte Cordey, a woman in a reſpectable ſituation of life.

On the 17th inſtant, at half paſt ten o'clock at night, the remains of Marat were depoſited in a grave dug in the yard of the club of the Cordeliers, between four linden-trees. At the baſe of his bed of ſtate the following words were inſcribed :

MARAT,
The friend of the people,
Aſſaſſinated by the enemies of the people.
Enemies of the country,
Moderate your joy ;
He will find avengers !

Charlotte Cordey was tried next day for the murder. Her appearance at the revolutionary tribunal ſtruck each perſon with reſpectful awe, and the idea of her as an aſſaſſin was removed from every mind.

The Accuſateur Public having aſked her for what reaſon ſhe had committed this reſolute act of murder ? ſhe replied with a ſtoic calmneſs—" I came to Paris to glorify myſelf by this deed ; to deliver my country from a conſpiring monſter, and to ſtop the wound his atrocious hands had opened."

Accuſateur Public.—Are you not aſhamed to become a common criminal for aſſaſſination ?

Mad. Cordey.—It is a crime to have committed murder, but no diſgrace to aſcend the ſcaffold for this act.

Accuſateur Public.—Do you recognize this ſanguinary dagger ?

Mad. Cordey.—I bought that myſelf in the Palais Royal, and remember it well ; it is the ſame I plunged into his heart—and I am ſatisfied.

This unhappy lady had two counſellors, one of whom was Mr. Stone, an Engliſhman, who during the laſt two hours of her trial inceſſantly felt her pulſe, to diſtinguiſh if there were any ſymptoms of burning fever or timidity. He declared they were the ſame as thoſe of a perſon contented in their mind. She did not manifeſt the leaſt irreſolution but in one interval, when Mr. Stone was ſo ſtruck with her firmneſs and anſwers, that he was quite diſmayed, and at that inſtant her undaunted courage fell, and tears of ſweet ſenſibility declared her gratitude for his pleading for her. She was condemned at three o'clock in the afternoon, after a trial of ſix hours, to be beheaded at eight o'clock the ſame evening on the Place de la Revolution.

She requeſted this gentleman, as a laſt favour, which, ſaid ſhe, will make me die contented, to defray all the little debts ſhe had contracted in the priſon of the Conciergerie, as the property ſhe had brought with her to Paris was confiſcated. —Mr. Stone promiſed and executed her requeſt.

The ſcene which her execution preſented was magnificently awful. The place was thronged with multitudes; and the moſt feeling minds were excited to behold the Amazonian courage of this unhappy lady in her laſt moments.

It was with much difficulty ſhe arrived at the ſcaffold. The fiſh-women and others, belonging to the markets, were near tearing her to pieces, with oaths and imprecations the moſt horrid. The gens d'armes and horſe of the republic prevented this horrid act, by galloping up with lifted ſabres.

Madame Cordey aſcended the ſcaffold with intrepidity. She appeared ſerene and reconciled to death. She pulled off her bonnet and neckerchief herſelf, but recoiled when the executioner went to bind her legs, and ſaid, " Are you ſo bad as to expoſe me here !" He anſwered, " No, it is to bind you." " Do it then," ſhe replied with firmneſs.

The inhuman monſter, when ſhewing her head to the people, after her execution, ſlapt it twice on the cheek ! ! This was conſidered as ſuch an atrocious act, that the very tribunal who had condemned

her

her to death ſentenced her executioner to twelve years impriſonment in irons.

The corpſe of Madame Cordey was buried in the church-yard of St. Magdelaine, near the grave of Louis XVI. ſhe having been executed in the ſame ſection with that unfortunate monarch.

LIST of PRIZES, continued from page 96.

THE ſhip Pilgrim, Hutchinſon, from Barbadoes, is arrived at Plymouth. On the 3d of May ſhe fell in with the ſhip La Liberté, Louis Boaiſe Guerin commander, in lat. 5 N. long. 23 W. La Liberté had 12 6-pounders and 69 men. Both ſhips engaged each other until the 7th, when ſhe ſtruck to the Pilgrim. She is a very fine ſhip, four years old, Daniſh built, and 800 tons burthen, with a moſt valuable cargo.

The Hannah Chriſtian, Juſtje, from Hambro' to Barcelona, is retaken, and carried into Guernſey.

The Phenix letter of marque, belonging to Dublin, has taken and carried into Waterford two French ſhips from Bourdeaux to Nantz, laden with wine, oil, &c.

The Alligator frigate, of 28 guns, has captured a French Weſt-Indiaman, valued at 40,000l. and has carried her into Halifax.

The laſt outward-bound Eaſt-Indiamen, ſeven ſhips in company, fell in with and captured a French ſhip from the Iſle of France, which is ſafe arrived at Falmouth.

The Maria and Eliza, Clement, from Boſton to Havre-de-Grace, is taken by the Ranger privateer, of Alderney, and carried into Guernſey.

The Ewretta, Beatſon, from London to Quebec, was well at the Gut of Kenſoon the 26th of June; and writes that a French privateer, of 18 guns, the only one heard of on that coaſt, had been taken by the Huſſar frigate.

A French Eaſt-Indiaman, La Commerçant, J. J. Ferrand, put into Madeira, not knowing of the war, was ſeized upon, and her cargo is now landing—It conſiſts of cotton, pepper, coffee, tea, indigo, &c.—The Junta has written to Liſbon reſpecting this prize. It is ſuppoſed to be worth eighty thouſand pounds.

The Nonpareil French Eaſt-Indiaman is taken by the Viper privateer, but this prize was wrecked off the Lizard, on the coaſt of Cornwall, on the night of Tueſday the 23d between the hours of ten and eleven, on her way to Weymouth, under the management of the prize-maſter and ſeven Engliſh ſailors. About ten o'clock on Wedneſday morning the India-man went to pieces. Much praiſe is due to the volunteers of Helſton for the activity, attention, and intrepidity, they ſhewed for the unfortunate ſuffering paſſengers, four ladies and ſix gentlemen of very high birth, with ſeveral children. They were brought to Helſton in a cart covered with ſtraw, almoſt naked; but, by the humanity and generoſity of the ladies and gentlemen, they were immediately waited on, relieved, and ſupplied with every neceſſary. A ſubſcription was alſo ſet on foot; and, after defraying every expence, the money was divided among the diſtreſſed ſufferers in ſuch proportions as ſeemed moſt proper. The ladies were conveyed to the commiſſary's at Penryn in chaiſes, and the gentlemen on horſeback.—She was ſuppoſed to be worth 400,000l. Happily no lives were loſt.

They write from Barbadoes, that a whaler, having a letter of marque, has brought into that port a French Eaſt-Indiaman, which ſhe captured juſt under the line; theſe ſhips fought for three days; the French captain's head was ſhot off; and, when the ſhip ſtruck, the firſt lieutenant threw himſelf out of the cabin window.

The French Eaſt-Indiaman San Jean de Leon, prize to the Surpriſe privateer, is ſafe arrived at moorings off Deptford-yard. Her cargo is rated at 410,000l. ſterling, of which goods to the amount of 85,000l. are claimed by Meſſrs. Conſtable and Co. of New York in America, and one of the partners of whoſe houſe was on-board her when captured; alſo goods to the amount of 35,000l. are claimed by a houſe at Geneva. The reſt will be the property of the captors.

His majeſty's frigate Alarm has taken and ſent into Fial two large French Weſt-Indiamen, very richly laden, from Guadaloupe.

Arrived at Liverpool a ſloop from Bayonne, bound to Breſt, with rozin, a prize to the Mary, Capt. Prince.

Saturday morning, Auguſt 3, a meſſage paſſed between the judge of the admiralty and the ambaſſador from Spain; in conſequence of which the prize-cauſe in the affair of the St. Jago Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, is adjourned for further diſcuſſion to Wedneſday the 4th of September.

The Hyæna frigate of 24 guns, Capt. Hargood, is taken by the French. She engaged a 44-gun ſhip for a conſiderable time, and would probably have taken her, when a French 74 came up, and Captain Hargood was obliged to ſtrike.





J.Chapman Sculpsit

THALESTRIS, QUEEN of the AMAZONS.

From a curious and valuable Antique.

London published as the Act directs *by J.Wilkes*

HISTORY OF THE AMAZONS.

THE Amazons were a nation of female warriors, who founded an empire in Aſia Minor, upon the river Thermodoon, along the coaſts of the Black Sea. They formed a ſtate out of which men were excluded. What commerce they had with that ſex was only with ſtrangers; they killed all their male children; and they cut off the right breaſts of their females, to make them more fit for the combat.

The Amazons are particularly mentioned by Herodotus. That hiſtorian informs us, that the Grecians fought a battle with the Amazons on the river Thermodoon, and defeated them. After their victory, they carried off all the Amazons they could take alive in three ſhips. But, whilſt they were out at ſea, theſe Amazons conſpired againſt the men, and killed them all. Having, however, no knowledge of navigation, nor any ſkill in the uſe of the rudder, ſails, or oars, they were driven by wind and tide till they arrived at the precipices of the lake Mæotis, in the territories of the Scythians. Here the Amazons went aſhore, and, marching into the country, ſeized and mounted the firſt horſes they met with, and began to plunder the inhabitants. The Scythians at firſt conceived them to be men; but after they had had ſkirmiſhes with them, and taken ſome priſoners, they diſcovered them to be women. They were then unwilling to carry on hoſtilities againſt them; and by degrees a number of the young Scythians formed connections with them, and were deſirous that theſe gentle dames ſhould live with them as wives, and be incorporated with the reſt of the Scythians. The Amazons agreed to continue their connection with their Scythian huſbands, but refuſed to aſſociate with the reſt of the inhabitants of the country, and eſpecially with the women of it. They afterwards prevailed upon their huſbands to retire to Sarmatia, where they ſettled. "Hence," ſays Herodotus, "the wives of the Sarmatians ſtill continue their ancient way of living. They hunt on horſeback in the company of their huſbands, and ſometimes alone. They march with their armies, and wear the ſame dreſs with the men. The Sarmatians uſe the Scythian language, but corrupted from the beginning, becauſe the Amazons never learned to ſpeak correctly. Their marriages are attended with this circumſtance: no virgin is permitted to marry till ſhe has killed an enemy in the field; ſo that ſome always grow old before they can qualify themſelves as the law requires."

Diodorus Siculus ſays, "There was formerly a nation who dwelt near the river Thermodoon, which was ſubjected to the government of women, and in which the women, like men, managed all the military affairs. Among theſe female warriors was one who excelled the reſt in ſtrength and valour. She aſſembled together an army of women, whom ſhe trained up in military diſcipline, and ſubdued ſome of the neighbouring nations. Afterwards, having by her valour increaſed her fame, ſhe led her army againſt the reſt; and, being ſucceſsful, ſhe was ſo puffed up, that ſhe ſtiled herſelf the daughter of Mars, and ordered the men to ſpin wool, and do the work of the women within doors. She alſo made laws, by which the women were enjoined to go to the wars, and the men to be kept at home in a ſervile ſtate, and employed in the meaneſt offices. They alſo debilitated the arms and thighs of thoſe male children who were born to them, that they might be thereby rendered unfit for war. They ſeared the right breaſts of their girls, that they might be no hindrance to them in fighting; from whence they derived the name of Amazons. Their queen, having become extremely eminent for ſkill and knowledge in military affairs, at length built a large city at the mouth of the river Thermodoon, and adorned it with a magnificent palace. In her enterpriſes ſhe exactly adhered to military diſcipline and good order; and ſhe added to her empire all the adjoining nations, even to the river Tanais. Having performed theſe exploits, ſhe at laſt ended her days like a hero, falling in battle, in which ſhe had fought courageouſly. She was ſucceeded in the kingdom by her daughter, who imitated the valour of her mother, and

in ſome exploits excelled her. She cauſed the girls from their very infancy to be exerciſed in hunting, and to be daily trained up in military exerciſes. She inſtituted ſolemn feſtivals and ſacrifices to Mars and Diana, which were named Tauropoli. She afterwards carried her arms beyond the Tanais, and ſubdued all the people of thoſe regions, even unto Thrace. Returning then with a great quantity of ſpoils into her own kingdom, ſhe cauſed magnificent temples to be erected to the deities before mentioned; and ſhe gained the love of her ſubjects by her mild and gentle government. She afterwards undertook an expedition againſt thoſe who were on the other ſide of the river, and ſubjected to her dominion a great part of Aſia, extending her arms as far as Syria."

Diodorus alſo mentions another race of Amazons who dwelt in Africa; and whom he ſpeaks of as being of greater antiquity than thoſe who lived near the river Thermodoon. "In the weſtern parts of Libya," ſays he, "upon the borders of thoſe tracts that are habitable, there was anciently a nation under the government of women, and whoſe manners and mode of living were altogether different from ours. It was the cuſtom of theſe women to manage all military affairs; and for a certain time, during which they preſerved their virginity, they went out as ſoldiers into the field. After ſome years employed in this manner, when the time appointed for this purpoſe was expired, they aſſociated themſelves with men, in order to obtain children. But the magiſtracy, and all public offices, they kept entirely in their own hands. The men, as the women are with us, were employed in houſehold affairs, ſubmitting themſelves wholly to the authority of their wives. They were not permitted to take any part in military affairs, or to have any command, or any public authority, which might have any tendency to encourage them to caſt off the yoke of their wives. As ſoon as any child was born, it was delivered to the father, to be fed with milk, or ſuch other food as was ſuitable to its age. If females were born, they ſeared their right breaſts, that they might not be burthenſome to them when they grew up; for they conſidered them as great hindrances in fighting."

Juſtinian repreſents another Amazonion republic to have taken its riſe in Scythia. The Scythians had a great part of Aſia under their dominion upwards of 400 years, till they were conquered by Ninus, the founder of the Aſſyrian empire. After his death, which happened about 1150 years before the Chriſtian era, and that of Semiramis and their ſon Ninias, Ilinus and Scolopites, princes of the royal blood of Scythia, were driven from their country by other princes, who like them aſpired to the crown. They departed with their wives, children, and friends; and, being followed by a number of young people, of both ſexes, they paſſed into Aſiatic Sarmatia, beyond Mount Camaſſus, where they formed an eſtabliſhment, ſupplying themſelves with the riches they wanted by making excurſions into the countries bordering on the Euxine Sea. The people of thoſe countries, exaſperated by the incurſions of their new neighbours, united, and ſurpriſed and maſſacred the men.

The women then reſolving to revenge their death, and at the ſame time to provide for their own ſecurity, reſolved to form a new kind of government, to chooſe a queen, enact laws, and maintain themſelves, without men, even againſt men themſelves. This deſign was not ſo very ſurpriſing as at firſt ſight appears: for the greateſt number of the girls among the Scythians had been inured to the ſame exerciſes as the boys; to draw the bow, to throw the javelin, to manage other arms; to riding, hunting, and even the painful labours that ſeem reſerved for men; and many of them, as among the Sarmatians, accompanied the men in war. Hence they had no ſooner formed their reſolution, than they prepared to execute it, and exerciſed themſelves in all military operations. They ſoon ſecured the peaceable poſſeſſion of the country; and, not content with ſhewing their neighbours that all their efforts to drive them thence or ſubdue them were ineffectual, they made war upon them, and extended their own frontiers. They had hitherto made uſe of the inſtructions and aſſiſtance of a few

a few men that remained in the country; but finding at length that they could ſtand their ground, and aggrandize themſelves, without them, they killed all thoſe whom flight or chance had ſaved from the fury of the Sarmatians, and for ever renounced marriage, which they now conſidered as an inſupportable ſlavery. But, as they could only ſecure the duration of their new kingdom by propagation, they made a law to go every year to the frontiers, to invite the men to come to them; to deliver themſelves up to their embraces, without choice on their part, or the leaſt attachment; and to leave them as ſoon as they were pregnant. All thoſe whom age rendered fit for propagation, and were willing to ſerve the ſtate by breeding girls, did not go at the ſame time in ſearch of men: for, in order to obtain a right to promote the multiplication of the ſpecies, they muſt firſt have contributed to its deſtruction; nor was any thought worthy of giving birth to children till ſhe had killed three men.

If from this commerce they brought forth girls, they educated them; but, with reſpect to the boys, if we may believe Juſtin, they ſtrangled them at the moment of their birth: according to Diodorus Siculus, they twiſted their legs and arms, ſo as to render them unfit for military exerciſes; but Quintius Curtius, Philoſtratus, and Jardarus, ſay, that the leſs ſavage ſent them to their fathers. It is probable, that at firſt, when their fury againſt the men was carried to the greateſt height, they killed the boys; that when this fury abated, and moſt of the mothers were filled with horror at depriving the little creatures of their lives they had juſt received from them, they fulfilled the firſt duties of a mother; but, to prevent their cauſing a revolution in the ſtate, maimed them in ſuch a manner as to render them incapable of war, and employed them in the mean offices which theſe warlike women thought beneath them. In ſhort, that, when their conqueſts had confirmed their power, their ferocity ſubſiding, they entered into political engagements with their neighbours; and, the number of the males they had preſerved becoming burdenſome, they, at the deſire of thoſe who rendered them pregnant, ſent them the boys, and continued ſtill to keep the girls.

As ſoon as the age of the girls permitted, they took away the right breaſt, that they might draw the bow with the greater force. The common opinion is, that they burnt that breaſt, by applying to it, at eight years of age, a hot brazen inſtrument, which inſenſibly dried up the fibres and glands; ſome think that they did not make uſe of ſo much ceremony, but that when the part was formed they got rid of it by amputation: ſome again, with much greater probability, aſſert, that they employed no violent meaſures; but, by a continual compreſſion of that part from infancy, prevented its growth, at leaſt ſo far as to hinder its ever being incommodious in war.

Plutarch gives ſome account of a battle which had been fought between the Athenians and the Amazons at Athens; and he relates ſome particulars of this battle which had been recorded by a very ancient writer named Clidemus. He ſays, "That the left wing of the Amazons moved towards the place which is yet called Amazonium, and the right to a place called Pryx, near Chryſa; upon which the Athenians, iſſuing from behind the Temple of the Muſes, fell upon them; and that this is true, the graves of thoſe that were ſlain, to be ſeen in the ſtreets that lead to the gate Piraica, by the temple of the hero Chalcodue, are a ſufficient proof. And here it was that the Athenians were routed, and ſhamefully turned their backs to women, as far as to the Temple of the Furies. But freſh ſupplies, coming in from Paladium, Ardettus, and Lyceum, charged their right wing, and beat them back into their very tents; in which action a great number of the Amazons were ſlain." In another place he ſays, "It appears that the paſſage of the Amazons through Theſſaly was not without oppoſition; for there are yet to be ſeen many of their ſepulchres near Scotuſæa and Cynocephalæ." And in his life of Pompey, ſpeaking of the Amazons, Plutarch ſays, "They inhabit thoſe parts of Mount Caucaſus that look towards the Hyrcanian ſea (not bordering upon the

Albanians, for the territories of the Getæ and the Leges lie betwixt): and with theſe people do they yearly, for two months only, accompany and cohabit, bed and board, near the river Thermodoon. After that they retire to their own habitations, and live alone all the reſt of the year."

Quintus Curtius ſays, "The nation of the Amazons is ſituated upon the borders of Hyrcania, near the river Thermodoon. Their queen was named Thaleſtris, and ſhe had under her ſubjection all the country that lies between mount Caucaſus and the river Phaſis. This queen came out of her dominions, in conſequence of an ardent deſire ſhe had conceived to ſee Alexander; and, being advanced near the place where he was, ſhe previouſly ſent meſſengers to acquaint him, that the queen was come to have the ſatisfaction of ſeeing and converſing with him. Having obtained permiſſion to viſit him, ſhe advanced with 300 of her Amazons, leaving the reſt of her troops behind. As ſoon as ſhe came within ſight of the king, ſhe leaped from her horſe, holding two javelins in her right hand. The apparel of the Amazons does not cover all the body; for their left ſide is naked down to the ſtomach; nor do the ſkirts of their garments, which they tie up in a knot, reach below their knees. They preſerve their left breaſt entire, that they may be able to ſuckle their female offſpring; and they cut off and ſear their right, that they may draw their bows, and caſt their darts, with the greater eaſe. Thaleſtris looked at the king with an undaunted countenance, and narrowly examined his perſon; which did not, according to her ideas, come up to the fame of his great exploits: for the barbarians have a great veneration for a majeſtic perſon, eſteeming thoſe only to be capable of performing great actions on whom nature has conferred a dignified appearance. The king having aſked her whether ſhe had any thing to deſire of him, ſhe replied, without ſcruple or heſitation, that ſhe was come with a view to have children by him, ſhe being worthy to bring him heirs to his dominions. The offſpring, if of the female ſex, ſhe would retain to herſelf; and, if of the male ſex, it ſhould be delivered to Alexander. He then aſked her, whether ſhe would accompany him in his wars? But this ſhe declined, alledging, that ſhe had left nobody to take care of her kingdom. She continued to ſolicit Alexander, that he would not ſend her away without conforming to her wiſhes; but, it was not till after a delay of thirteen days that he complied. She then returned to her own kingdom.

Juſtin alſo repeatedly mentions this viſit to Alexander; and in one place he ſays, that ſhe made a march of twenty-five days, in order to obtain this meeting with him. The interview between Alexander and Thaleſtris is likewiſe mentioned by Diodorus Siculus. The learned Goropius, as he is quoted by Dr. Petit, laments, in very pathetic terms, the hard fate of Thaleſtris, who was obliged to travel ſo many miles, and to encounter ſo many hardſhips, in order to procure this interview with the Macedonian prince; and, from the circumſtances, is led to conſider the whole account as incredible. But Dr. Petit, with equal erudition, with equal eloquence, and with ſuperior force of reaſoning, at length determines, that her journey was not founded upon irrational principles, and that full credit is due to thoſe grave and venerable hiſtorians by whom this tranſaction has been recorded.

The Amazons are repreſented as being armed with bows and arrows, with javelins, and alſo with an axe of a particular conſtruction, which was denominated the axe of the Amazons. According to the elder Pliny, this axe was invented by Penthiſilea, one of their queens. On many ancient medals are repreſentations of the Amazons, armed with theſe axes. They are alſo ſaid to have had bucklers in the ſhape of a half-moon.

Yet that there ſhould have been women, who, without the aſſiſtance of men, built cities and governed them, raiſed armies and commanded them, adminiſtered public affairs, and extended their dominion by arms, is undoubtedly ſo contrary to all that we have ſeen and known of human affairs, as to appear in a very great degree incredible; but, that women may have exiſted ſufficiently robuſt, and ſufficiently courageous,

geous, to have engaged in warlike enterprises, and even to have been successful in them, is certainly not impossible, however contrary to the usual course of things. In support of this side of the question, it may be urged, that women who have been early trained to warlike exercises, to hunting, and to an hard and laborious mode of living, may be rendered more strong, and capable of more vigorous exertions, than men who have led indolent, delicate, and luxurious, lives, and who have seldom been exposed even to the inclemencies of the weather. The limbs of women, as well as of men, are strengthened and rendered more robust by frequent and laborious exercise. A nation of women, therefore, brought up and disciplined as the ancient Amazons are represented to have been, would be superior to an equal number of effeminate men; though they might be much inferior to an equal number of hardy men, trained up and disciplined in the same manner.

Instances of heroism in women have occasionally occurred in modern times, somewhat resembling that of the ancient Amazons. The times and the manners of chivalry in particular, by bringing great enterprises, bold adventures, and extravagant heroism, into fashion, inspired the women with the same taste. The women, in consequence of the prevailing passion, were now seen in the middle of camps and of armies. They quitted the soft and tender inclinations, and the delicate offices, of their own sex, for the toils and the toilsome occupations of ours. During the crusades, animated by the double enthusiasm of religion and of valour, they often performed the most romantic exploits; obtained indulgences on the field of battle, and died with arms in their hands, by the side of their lovers or of their husbands.

In Europe, the women attacked and defended fortifications; princesses commanded their armies, and obtained victories. Such was the celebrated Joan de Montfort, disputing for her duchy of Bretagne, and fighting herself. Such was that still more celebrated Margaret of Anjou, that active and intrepid general and soldier, whose genius supported a long time a feeble husband; which taught him to conquer; which replaced him upon the throne; which twice relieved him from prison; and, oppressed by fortune and by rebels, which did not bend till after she had decided in person twelve battles.

The warlike spirit among the women, consistent with ages of barbarism, when every thing is impetuous because nothing is fixed, and when all excess is the excess of force, continued in Europe upwards of 400 years, shewing itself from time to time, and always in the middle of convulsions, or on the eve of great revolutions. But there were eras and countries in which that spirit appeared with particular lustre. Such were the displays it made in the 15th and 16th centuries in Hungary, and in the islands of the Archipelago and the Mediterranean, when they were invaded by the Turks.

Among the striking instances of Amazonian conduct in modern ladies, may be mentioned that of Jane of Belleville, widow of Monf. de Clisson, who was beheaded at Paris in the year 1343, on a suspicion of carrying on a correspondence with England and the Count de Montfort. This lady, filled with grief for the death of her late husband, and exasperated at the ill treatment which she considered him as having received, sent off her son secretly to London; and, when her apprehensions were removed with respect to him, she sold her jewels, fitted out three ships, and put to sea, to revenge the death of her late husband upon all the French she should meet. This new corsair made several descents upon Normandy, where she stormed castles; and the inhabitants of that province were spectators more than once, whilst their villages were all in a blaze, of one of the finest women in Europe, with a sword in one hand and a torch in the other, urging the carnage, and eyeing with pleasure all the horrors of war.

We read in Mezeray, under the article of the Croisade preached by St. Bernard in the year 1147, "That many women did not content themselves with taking the cross, but that they also took up arms to defend it, and composed squadrons of females, which rendered credible all that has been said of the prowess of the Amazons."

In

In the year 1590, the League party obtained ſome troops from the king of Spain. Upon the news of their being diſembarked, Barri de St. Aunez, Henry IV's governor at Leucate, ſet out to communicate a ſcheme to the Duke de Montmorenci, commander in that province. He was taken in his way by ſome of the troops of the League, who were alſo upon their march with the Spaniards towards Leucate. They were perſuaded, that, by thus having the governor in their hands, the gates of that place would be immediately opened to them, or at leaſt would not hold out long. But Conſtantiade Cecelli, his wife, after having aſſembled the garriſon, put herſelf ſo reſolutely at their head, pike in hand, that ſhe inſpired the weakeſt with courage; and the beſiegers were repulſed wherever they preſented themſelves. Shame and their great loſs having rendered them deſperate, they ſent a meſſage to this courageous woman, acquainting her, that, if ſhe continued to defend herſelf, they would hang her huſband. She replied, with tears in her eyes, "I have riches in abundance: I have offered them, and I do ſtill offer them, for his ranſom; but I would not ignominiouſly purchaſe a life which he would reproach me with, and which he would be aſhamed to enjoy. I will not diſhonour him by treaſon againſt my king and country." The beſiegers, having made a freſh attack without ſucceſs, put her huſband to death, and raiſed the ſiege. Henry IV. afterwards ſent to this lady the brevet of governeſs of Leucate, with the reverſion for her ſon.

The Abbé Arnaud, in his Memoirs, ſpeaks of a Counteſs of St. Balmont, who uſed to take the field with her huſband, and fight by his ſide. She ſent ſeveral Spaniſh priſoners of her taking to Marſhal Feuquiers; and, what is not a little extraordinary, this Amazon at home was all affability and ſweetneſs, and gave herſelf up to reading and acts of piety.

Dr. Johnſon ſeems to have given credit to the accounts which have been tranſmitted down to us concerning the ancient Amazons; and he has endeavoured to ſhew that we ought not haſtily to reject ancient hiſtorical narrations becauſe they contain ſome facts repugnant to modern manners, and exhibit ſcenes to which nothing now occurring bears a reſemblance. "Of what we know not (ſays he), we can only judge by what we know. Every novelty appears more wonderful as it is more remote from any thing with which experience or teſtimony have hitherto acquainted us; and if it paſſes farther, beyond the notions that we have been accuſtomed to form, it becomes at laſt incredible. We ſeldom conſider, that human knowledge is very narrow; that national manners are formed by chance; that uncommon conjunctures of cauſes produce rare effects; or that what is impoſſible at one time or place may yet happen in another. It is always eaſier to deny than to inquire. To refuſe credit confers for a moment an appearance of ſuperiority which every little mind is tempted to aſſume, when it may be gained ſo cheaply as by withdrawing attention from evidence, and declining the fatigue of comparing probabilities. Many relations of travellers have been ſlighted as fabulous, till more frequent voyages have confirmed their veracity; and it may reaſonably be imagined, that many ancient hiſtorians are unjuſtly ſuſpected of falſehood, becauſe our own times afford nothing that reſembles what they tell. Few narratives will either to men or women appear more incredible than the hiſtories of the Amazons; of female nations, of whoſe conſtitution it was the eſſential and fundamental law to exclude men from all participation, either of public affairs or domeſtic buſineſs; where female armies marched under female captains, female farmers gathered the harveſt, female partners danced together, and female wits diverted one another. Yet ſeveral ages of antiquity have tranſmitted accounts of the Amazons of Caucaſus; and of the Amazons of America, who have given their name to the greateſt river in the world. Condamine lately found ſuch memorials as can be expected among erratic and unlettered nations, where events are recorded only by tradition, and new ſwarms ſettling in the country from time to time confuſe and efface all traces of former times."

No author has taken ſo much pains upon this ſubject as Dr. Petit. But, in the courſe of his work, he has given it as his opinion, that there is great difficulty in governing the women even at preſent, though they are unarmed and unpractiſed in the art of war. After all his elaborate inquiries and diſcuſſions, therefore, this learned writer might probably think, that it is not an evil of the firſt magnitude that the race of Amazons now ceaſes to exiſt.

Rouſſeau ſays, "The empire of the woman is an empire of ſoftneſs, of addreſs, of complacency. Her commands are careſſes, her menaces are tears." But the empire of the Amazons was certainly an empire of a very different kind. Upon the whole, we may conclude with Dr. Johnſon: "The character of the ancient Amazons was rather terrible than lovely. The hand could not be very delicate that was only employed in drawing the bow and brandiſhing the battle-axe. Their power was maintained by cruelty, their courage was deformed by ferocity; and their example only ſhews, that men and women live beſt together."

Of CUSTOM and HABIT.

CUSTOM and habit have ſuch influence upon our actions and feelings, by warping and varying them, that its operations demand the attention of all thoſe who would be acquainted with human nature. The ſubject, however, is as intricate as it is curious. Some pleaſures are fortified by cuſtom; and yet cuſtom begets familiarity, and conſequently indifference:

If all the year were playing holidays,
To ſport would be as tedious as to work:
But, when they ſeldom come, they wiſh'd-for come,
And nothing pleaſeth but rare accidents.
SHAKESPEARE.

In many inſtances, ſatiety and diſguſt are the conſequences of reiteration; again, though cuſtom blunts the edge of diſtreſs and of pain, yet the want of any thing to which we have been long accuſtomed is a ſort of torture. A clue to guide us through all the intricacies of this labyrinth would be an invaluable preſent.

Whatever be the cauſe, it is certain that we are much influenced by cuſtom; it hath an effect upon our pleaſures, upon our actions, and even upon our thoughts and ſentiments. Habit makes no figure during the vivacity of youth: in middle-age it gains ground; and in old age governs without controul. In that period of life, generally ſpeaking, we eat at a certain hour, take exerciſe at a certain hour, go to reſt at a certain hour, all by the direction of habit: nay, a particular ſeat, table, bed, comes to be eſſential; and a habit in any of theſe cannot be controuled without uneaſineſs.

Any ſlight or moderate pleaſure, frequently reiterated for a long time, forms a peculiar connection between us and the thing that cauſes the pleaſure. This connection, termed habit, has the effect to awaken our deſire or appetite for that thing when it returns not as uſual. During the courſe of enjoyment, the pleaſure riſes inſenſibly higher and higher till a habit be eſtabliſhed; at which time the pleaſure is at its height. It continues not, however, ſtationary: the ſame cuſtomary reiteration, which carried it to its height, brings it down again by inſenſible degrees, even lower than it was at firſt; but of that circumſtance afterwards. What at preſent we have in view, is to prove by experiments, that thoſe things which at firſt are but moderately agreeable are the apteſt to become habitual. Spiritous liquors, at firſt ſcarcely agreeable, readily produce an habitual appetite: and cuſtom prevail ſo far, as even to make us fond of things originally diſagreeable, ſuch as coffee, aſſa fœtida, and tobacco.

A walk upon the quarter-deck, tho' intolerably confined, becomes however ſo agreeable by cuſtom, that a ſailor in his walk on-ſhore confines himſelf commonly within the ſame bounds. The author knew a man who had relinquiſhed the ſea for a country life; in the corner of his garden, he reared an artificial mount with a level ſummit, reſembling moſt accurately a quarter-deck,

deck, not only in ſhape but in ſize; and here he generally walked. In Minorca governor Kane made an excellent road the whole length of the iſland; and yet the inhabitants adhere to the old road, though not only longer, but extremely bad. Play or gaming, at firſt barely amuſing by the occupation it affords, becomes in time extremely agreeable; and is frequently proſecuted with avidity, as if it were the chief buſineſs of life. The ſame obſervation is applicable to the pleaſures of the internal ſenſes, thoſe of knowledge and virtue in particular: children have ſcarcely any ſenſe of theſe pleaſures; and men very little who are in a ſtate of nature without culture: our taſte for virtue and knowledge improves ſlowly, but is capable of growing ſtronger than any other appetite in human nature.

To introduce an active habit, frequency of acts is not ſufficient without length of time: the quickeſt ſucceſſion of acts in a ſhort time is not ſufficient; nor a ſlow ſucceſſion in the longeſt time. The effect muſt be produced by a moderately ſoft action, and a long ſeries of eaſy touches, removed from each other by ſhort intervals. Nor are theſe ſufficient without regularity in the time, place, and other circumſtances, of the action; the more uniform any operation is, the ſooner it becomes habitual. And this holds equally in paſſive habit; variety, in any remarkable degree, prevents the effect; thus any particular food will ſcarcely ever become habitual where the manner of dreſſing is varied. The circumſtances then requiſite to augment a moderate pleaſure, and at the long-run to form a habit, are weak uniform acts, reiterated during a long courſe of time, without any conſiderable interruption: every agreeable cauſe that operates in this manner will grow habitual.

Affection and averſion, as diſtinguiſhed from paſſion on the one hand, and on the other from original diſpoſition, are in reality habits reſpecting particular objects, acquired in the manner above ſet forth. The pleaſure of ſocial intercourſe with any perſon muſt originally be faint, and frequently reiterated, in order to eſtabliſh the habit of affection. Affection thus generated, whether it be friendſhip or love, ſeldom ſwells into any tumultuous or vigorous paſſion; but it is however the ſtrongeſt cement that can bind together two individuals of the human ſpecies. In like manner, a ſlight degree of diſguſt, often reiterated with regularity, grows into the habit of averſion, which commonly ſubſiſts for life.

Objects of taſte that are delicious, far from tending to become habitual, are apt by indulgence to produce ſatiety and diſguſt; no man contracts a habit of ſugar, honey, or ſweetmeats, as he doth of tobacco.

> Theſe violent delights have violent ends,
> And in their triumphs die. The ſweeteſt honey
> Is loathſome in its own deliciouſneſs,
> And in the taſte confounds the appetite;
> Therefore love mod'rately, long love doth ſo;
> Too ſwift arrives a tardy as too ſlow.
>
> ROMEO AND JULIET.

The ſame obſervation holds with reſpect to all objects that being extremely agreeable raiſe violent paſſions: ſuch paſſions are incompatible with a habit of any ſort; and in particular, they never produce affection nor averſion: a man who at firſt ſight falls violently in love has a ſtrong deſire of enjoyment, but no affection for the woman: a man who is ſurpriſed with an unexpected favour burns for an opportunity to exert his gratitude, without having any affection for his benefactor: neither does deſire of vengeance for an atrocious injury involve averſion.

It is perhaps not eaſy to ſay why moderate pleaſures gather ſtrength by cuſtom: but two cauſes concur to prevent that effect in the more intenſe pleaſures. Theſe, by an original law in our nature, increaſe quickly to their full growth, and decay with no leſs precipitation: and cuſtom is too ſlow in its operation to overcome that law. The other cauſe is not leſs powerful: exquiſite pleaſure is extremely fatiguing; occaſioning, as a naturaliſt would ſay, great expence of animal ſpirits; and of ſuch the mind cannot bear ſo frequent gratification as to ſuperinduce a habit: if the thing that raiſes the pleaſure return before the mind have recovered its tone and reliſh, diſguſt enſues inſtead of pleaſure.

A habit

A habit never fails to admoniſh us of the wonted time of gratification, by raiſing a pain for want of the object, and a deſire to have it. The pain of want is always firſt felt; the deſire naturally follows; and, upon preſenting the object, both vaniſh inſtantaneouſly. Thus a man accuſtomed to tobacco feels at the end of the uſual interval a confuſed pain of want, which at firſt points at nothing in particular, though it ſoon ſettles upon its accuſtomed object: and the ſame may be obſerved in perſons addicted to drinking, who are often in an uneaſy reſtleſs ſtate before they think of the bottle. In pleaſures indulged regularly, and at equal intervals, the appetite, remarkably obſequious to cuſtom, returns regularly with the uſual times of gratification; not ſooner, even though the object be preſented. This pain of want ariſing from habit ſeems directly oppoſite to that of ſatiety; and it muſt appear ſingular, that frequency of gratification ſhould produce effects ſo oppoſite as are the pains of exceſs and of want.

The appetites that reſpect the preſervation and propagation of our ſpecies are attended with pain of want ſimilar to that occaſioned by habit: hunger and thirſt are uneaſy ſenſations of want, which always precede the deſire of eating and drinking; and a pain for want of carnal enjoyment precedes the deſire of an object. The pain, being thus felt independent of an object, cannot be cured but by gratification. Very different is an ordinary paſſion, in which deſire precedes the pain of want: ſuch a paſſion cannot exiſt but while the object is in view; and therefore, by removing the object out of thought, it vaniſhes with its deſire and pain of want.

The natural appetites above mentioned differ from habit in the following particular: they have an undetermined direction towards all objects of gratification in general; whereas an habitual appetite is directed to a particular object: the attachment we have by habit to a particular woman differs widely from the natural paſſion which comprehends the whole ſex; and the habitual reliſh for a particular diſh is far from being the ſame with a vague appetite for food. That difference notwithſtanding, it is ſtill remarkable, that nature hath enforced the gratification of certain natural appetites, eſſential to the ſpecies, by pain of the ſame ſort with that which habit produceth.

The pain of habit is leſs under our power than any other pain that ariſes from want of gratification: hunger and thirſt are more eaſily endured, eſpecially at firſt, than an unuſual intermiſſion of any habitual pleaſure: perſons are often heard declaring, they would forego ſleep or food rather than tobacco. We muſt not however conclude, that the gratification of an habitual appetite affords the ſame delight with the gratification of one that is natural: far from it; the pain of want only is greater.

The ſlow and reiterated acts that produce a habit ſtrengthen the mind to enjoy the habitual pleaſure in greater quantity and more frequency than originally; and by that means a habit of intemperate gratification is often formed; after unbounded acts of intemperance, the habitual reliſh is ſoon reſtored, and the pain for want of enjoyment returns with freſh vigour.

The cauſes of the preſent emotions hitherto in view, are either an individual, ſuch as a companion, a certain dwelling-place, a certain amuſement; or any particular ſpecies, ſuch as coffee mutton, or any other food. But habit is not confined to ſuch. A conſtant train of trifling diverſions may form ſuch a habit in the mind, that it cannot be eaſy a moment without amuſement: a variety in the objects prevents a habit as to any one in particular: but, as the train is uniform with reſpect to amuſement, the habit is formed accordingly; and that ſort of habit may be denominated *a generic habit*, in oppoſition to the former, which is *a ſpecific habit*. A habit of a town-life, of country-ſports, of ſolitude, of reading, or of buſineſs, where ſufficiently varied, are inſtances of generic habits. Every ſpecific habit hath a mixture of the generic; for the habit of any one ſort of food makes the taſte agreeable, and we are fond of that taſte wherever found. Thus a man deprived of an habitual object takes up with what moſt reſembles it; deprived of tobacco, any bitter herb will do rather than want; a habit of punch makes wine a good reſource;

ſource; accuſtomed to the ſweet ſociety and comforts of matrimony, the man unhappily deprived of his beloved object inclines the ſooner to a ſecond. In general, when we are deprived of an habitual object, we are fond of its qualities in any other object.

The reaſons are aſſigned above, why the cauſes of intenſe pleaſure become not readily habitual: but now we diſcover, that theſe reaſons conclude only againſt ſpecific habits. In the caſe of a weak pleaſure, a habit is formed by frequency and uniformity of reiteration, which, in the caſe of an intenſe pleaſure, produceth ſatiety and diſguſt. But it is remarkable, that ſatiety and diſguſt have no effect, except as to that thing ſingly which occaſions them: a ſurfeit of honey produceth not a loathing of ſugar; and intemperance with one woman produceth no diſreliſh of the ſame pleaſure with others. Hence it is eaſy to account for generic habit in any intenſe pleaſure: the delight we had in the gratification of the appetite inflames the imagination, and makes us ſearch, with avidity, for the ſame gratification in whatever other object it can be found. And thus uniform frequency in gratifying the ſame paſſion upon different objects produceth at length a generic habit. In this manner one acquires an habitual delight in high and poignant ſauces, rich dreſs, fine equipages, crowds of company, and in whatever is commonly termed pleaſure. There concurs at the ſame time, to introduce this habit, a peculiarity obſerved above, that reiteration of acts enlarges the capacity of the mind to admit a more plentiful gratification than originally, with regard to frequency as well as quantity.

Hence it appears, that, though a ſpecific habit cannot be formed but upon a moderate pleaſure, a generic habit may be formed upon any ſort of pleaſure, moderate or immoderate, that hath variety of objects. The only difference is, that a weak pleaſure runs naturally into a ſpecific habit; whereas an intenſe pleaſure is altogether averſe from ſuch a habit. In a word, it is only in ſingular caſes that a moderate pleaſure produces a generic habit; but an intenſe pleaſure cannot produce any other habit.

The appetites that reſpect the preſervation and propagation of the ſpecies are formed into habit in a peculiar manner; the time as well as meaſure of their gratification are much under the power of cuſtom; which, introducing a change upon the body, occaſions a proportional change in the appetites. Thus, if the body be gradually formed to a certain quantity of food at ſtated times, the appetite is regulated accordingly; and the appetite is again changed when a different habit of body is introduced by a different practice. Here it would ſeem, that the change is not made upon the mind, which is commonly the caſe in paſſive habits, but upon the body.

When rich food is brought down by ingredients of a plainer taſte, the compoſition is ſuſceptible of a ſpecific habit. Thus the ſweet taſte of ſugar, rendered leſs poignant in a mixture, may, in courſe of time, produce a ſpecific habit for ſuch mixture. As moderate pleaſures, by becoming more intenſe, tend to generic habits, ſo intenſe pleaſures, by becoming more moderate, tend to ſpecific habits.

The beauty of the human figure, by a ſpecial recommendation of nature, appears to us ſupreme, amid the great variety of beauteous forms beſtowed upon animals. The various degrees in which individuals enjoy that property render it an object ſometimes of a moderate, ſometimes of an intenſe, paſſion. The moderate paſſion, admitting frequent reiteration without diminution, and occupying the mind without exhauſting it, grows gradually ſtronger till it becomes a habit. Nay, inſtances are not wanting, of a face at firſt diſagreeable, afterwards rendered indifferent by familiarity, and at length agreeable by cuſtom. On the other hand, conſummate beauty, at the very firſt glance, fills the mind ſo as to admit no increaſe. Enjoyment leſſens the pleaſure; and, if often repeated, ends commonly in ſatiety and diſguſt. The impreſſions made by conſummate beauty, in a gradual ſucceſſion from lively to faint, conſtitutes a ſeries oppoſite to that of faint impreſſions waxing gradually more lively, till they produce a ſpecific habit. But the mind, when accuſtomed

to

to beauty, contracts a reliſh for it in general, though often repelled from particular objects by the pain of ſatiety; and thus a generic habit is formed, of which inconſtancy in love is the neceſſary conſequence; for a generic habit, comprehending every beautiful object, is an invincible obſtruction to a ſpecific habit, which is confined to one.

But this matter, which is of great importance to the youth of both ſexes, deſerves more than a curſory view. Tho' the pleaſant emotion of beauty differs widely from the corporeal appetite, yet when both are directed to the ſame object, they produce a very ſtrong complex paſſion: enjoyment in that caſe muſt be exquiſite; and therefore more apt to produce ſatiety than in any other caſe whatever. This is a never-failing effect, where conſummate beauty in the one party meets with a warm imagination and great ſenſibility in the other. What we are here explaining is true without exaggeration; and they muſt be inſenſible upon whom it makes no impreſſion: it deſerves well to be pondered by the young and amorous, who, in forming the matrimonial ſociety, are too often blindly impelled by the animal pleaſure merely, inflamed by beauty. It may indeed happen, after the pleaſure is gone, that a new connection is formed upon more dignified and more laſting principles: but this is a dangerous experiment; for even ſuppoſing good ſenſe, good temper, and internal merit of every ſort, yet a new connection upon ſuch qualifications is rarely formed: it commonly, or rather always, happens, that ſuch qualifications, the only ſolid foundation of an indiſſoluble connection, are rendered altogether inviſible by ſatiety of enjoyment creating diſguſt.

One effect of cuſtom, different from any that have been explained, muſt not be omitted, becauſe it makes a great figure in human nature: though cuſtom augments moderate pleaſures, and leſſens thoſe that are intenſe, it has a different effect with reſpect to pain; for it blunts the edge of every ſort of pain and diſtreſs, faint or acute. Uninterrupted miſery, therefore, is attended with one good effect: if its torments be inceſſant, cuſtom hardens us to bear them.

The changes made in forming habits are curious. Moderate pleaſures are augmented gradually by reiteration, till they become habitual; and then are at their height: but they are not long ſtationary: for from that point they gradually decay, till they vaniſh altogether. The pain occaſioned by want of gratification runs a different courſe: it increaſes uniformly; and at laſt becomes extreme, when the pleaſure of gratification is reduced to nothing.

——————It ſo falls out,
That what we have we prize not to the worth
While we enjoy it; but, being lack'd and loſt,
Why then we rack the value; then we find
The virtue that poſſeſſion would not ſhew us
Whilſt it was ours.

The effect of cuſtom with relation to a ſpecific habit is diſplayed through all its varieties in the uſe of tobacco. The taſte of that plant is at firſt extremely unpleaſant: our diſguſt leſſens gradually, till it vaniſh altogether; at which period the taſte is neither agreeable nor diſagreeable: continuing the uſe of the plant, we begin to reliſh it: and our reliſh improves by uſe, till it arrive at perfection: from that period it gradually decays, while the habit is in a ſtate of increment, and conſequently the pain of want. The reſult is, that, when the habit has acquired its greateſt vigour, the reliſh is gone; and accordingly we often ſmoke and take ſnuff habitually, without ſo much as being conſcious of the operation. We muſt expect gratification after the pain of want; the pleaſure of which gratification is the greateſt when the habit is the moſt vigorous: it is of the ſame kind with the pleaſure one feels upon being delivered from the rack. This pleaſure however is but occaſionally the effect of habit; and, however exquiſite, is avoided as much as poſſible becauſe of the pain that precedes it.

With regard to the pain of want, we can find no difference between a generic and a ſpecific habit; but theſe habits differ widely with reſpect to the poſitive pleaſure. We have had occaſion to obſerve, that the pleaſure of a ſpecific habit decays gradually till it turn imperceptible: the pleaſure of a generic habit, on the contrary, being ſupported

by variety of gratification, ſuffers little or no decay after it comes to its height. However it may be with other generic habits, the obſervation certainly holds with reſpect to the pleaſures of virtue and of knowledge: the pleaſure of doing good has an unbounded ſcope, and may be ſo variouſly gratified that it can never decay; ſcience is equally unbounded; our appetite for knowledge having an ample range of gratification, where diſcoveries are recommended by novelty, by variety, by utility, or by all of them.

In this intricate inquiry, we have endeavoured, but without ſucceſs, to diſcover by what particular means it is that cuſtom hath influence upon us: and now nothing ſeems left, but to hold our nature to be ſo framed as to be ſuſceptible of ſuch influence. And, ſuppoſing it purpoſely ſo framed, it will not be difficult to find out ſeveral important final cauſes. That the power of cuſtom is a happy contrivance for our good, cannot have eſcaped any one who reflects, that buſineſs is our province, and pleaſure our relaxation only. Now ſatiety is neceſſary to check exquiſite pleaſures, which otherwiſe would engroſs the mind, and unqualify us for buſineſs. On the other hand, as buſineſs is ſometimes painful, and is never pleaſant beyond moderation, the habitual increaſe of moderate pleaſure, and the converſion of pain into pleaſure, are admirably contrived for diſappointing the malice of fortune, and for reconciling us to whatever courſe of life may be our lot:

How uſe doth breed a habit in a man!
This ſhadowy deſart, unfrequented woods,
I better brook than flouriſhing peopled towns.
Here I can ſit alone, unſeen of any,
And to the nightingale's complaining notes
Tune my diſtreſſes and record my woes.
TWO GENTLEMEN OF VERONA.

As the foregoing diſtinction between intenſe and moderate holds in pleaſure only, every degree of pain being ſoftened by time, cuſtom is a catholicon for pain and diſtreſs of every ſort; and of that regulation the final cauſe requires no illuſtration.

Another final cauſe of cuſtom will be highly reliſhed by every perſon of humanity, and yet has in a great meaſure been overlooked; which is, that cuſtom hath a greater influence than any other known cauſe to put the rich and the poor upon a level: weak pleaſures, the ſhare of the latter, become fortunately ſtronger by cuſtom; while voluptuous pleaſures, the ſhare of the former, are continually loſing ground by ſatiety. Men of fortune, who poſſeſs palaces, ſumptuous gardens, rich fields, enjoy them leſs than paſſengers do. The goods of Fortune are not unequally diſtributed; the opulent poſſeſs what others enjoy.

And indeed, if it be the effect of habit to produce the pain of want in a high degree, while there is little pleaſure in enjoyment, a voluptuous life is of all the leaſt to be envied. Thoſe who are habituated to high feeding, eaſy vehicles, rich furniture, a crowd of valets, much deference and flattery, enjoy but a ſmall ſhare of happineſs, while they are expoſed to manifold diſtreſſes. To ſuch a man, enſlaved by eaſe and luxury, even the petty inconveniences of travelling of a rough road, bad weather, or homely fare, are ſerious evils: he loſes his tone of mind, turns peeviſh, and would wreak his reſentment even upon the common accidents of life. Better far to uſe the goods of Fortune with moderation: a man, who by temperance and activity hath acquired a hardy conſtitution, is, on the one hand, guarded againſt external accidents; and, on the other, is provided with great variety of enjoyment ever at command.

We ſhall cloſe this ſubject with an article more delicate than abſtruſe, viz. what authority cuſtom ought to have over our taſte in the fine arts. One particular is certain, that we cheerfully abandon to the authority of cuſtom things that nature hath left indifferent. It is cuſtom, not nature, that hath eſtabliſhed a difference between the right hand and the left, ſo as to make it aukward and diſagreeable to uſe the left where the right is commonly uſed. The various colours, though they affect us differently, are all of them agreeable in their purity: but cuſtom has regulated that matter in another manner; a black ſkin upon a human being is to us diſagreeable; and a white ſkin probably not leſs ſo to a negro. Thus things, originally

originally indifferent, become agreeable or diſagreeable by the force of cuſtom. Nor will this be ſurpriſing after the diſcovery made above, that the original agreeableneſs or diſagreeableneſs of an object is, by the influence of cuſtom, often converted into the oppoſite quality.

Proceeding to matters of taſte, where there is naturally a preference of one thing before another; it is certain, in the firſt place, that our faint and more delicate feelings are readily ſuſceptible of a bias from cuſtom; and therefore that it is no proof of a defective taſte, to find theſe in ſome meaſure influenced by cuſtom; dreſs and the modes of external behaviour are regulated by cuſtom in every country: the deep red or rouge, with which the ladies cover their cheeks, appears to them beautiful in ſpite of nature; and they inſiſt that we cannot altogether be juſtified in condemning that practice, conſidering the lawful authority of cuſtom, or of faſhion, as it is called: it is told of the people who inhabit the ſkirts of the Alps facing the north, that the ſwelling they univerſally have in the neck is to them agreeable. So far has cuſtom power to change the nature of things, and to make an object originally diſagreeable take on an oppoſite appearance.

But as to every particular that can be denominated proper or improper, right or wrong, cuſtom has little authority, and ought to have none. The principle of duty naturally takes place of every other; and it argues a ſhameful weakneſs or degeneracy of mind, to find it in any caſe ſo far ſubdued as to ſubmit to cuſtom.

HISTORY OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

[*Continued from page* 118.]

EVERY city in China is divided into different quarters, each of which is ſubjected to the inſpection of a certain officer, who is anſwerable for whatever paſſes in the places under his juriſdiction. Fathers of families, as we have already obſerved, are anſwerable for the conduct of their children and domeſtics. Neighbours are even obliged to anſwer for one another, and are bound to give every help and aſſiſtance in caſes of robbery, fire, or any accident, eſpecially in the night-time. All the cities are furniſhed with gates, which are barricaded on the commencement of night. Centinels are alſo poſted at certain diſtances throughout the ſtreets, who ſtop all who walk in the night, and a number of horſemen go round the ramparts for the ſame purpoſe; ſo that it is almoſt impoſſible to elude their vigilance by favour of the darkneſs. A ſtrict watch is alſo kept during the day-time; and all thoſe who give any ſuſpicion by their looks, accent, or behaviour, are immediately carried before a mandarin, and ſometimes even detained until the pleaſure of the governor be known.

Private quarrels do not often happen in China, and it is rare that they are attended with a fatal iſſue. The champions ſometimes decide the quarrel with their fiſts, but moſt frequently refer the caſe to a mandarin, who very often orders them both a ſound drubbing. None but military people are permitted to wear arms in public; and this privilege is extended even to them only during the time of war, or when they accompany a mandarin, mount guard, or attend a review. Proſtitutes are not allowed to remain within the walls of a city, or to keep a houſe of their own even in the ſuburbs. They may, however, lodge in the houſe of another; but that other is accountable for every diſturbance which may happen on their account.

In all the Chineſe cities, and even in ſome of their ordinary towns, there is an office where money may be borrowed upon pledges at the common rate of the country; which, however, is no leſs than thirty per cent. Every pledge is marked with a number when left at the office, and muſt be produced when demanded; but it becomes the property of the office if left there a ſingle day longer than the term agreed upon for the payment of the money. The whole tranſaction remains an inviolable ſecret;

cret; not even the name of the perſon who leaves the pledge being inquired after.

Great attention is paid by the adminiſtration of China to the conveniency of travellers. The roads are generally very broad, all of them paved in the ſouthern provinces, and ſome in the northern; but neither horſes nor carriages are allowed to paſs along theſe. In many places valleys have been filled up, and rocks and mountains cut thro', for the purpoſe of making commodious high-ways, and to preſerve them as nearly as poſſible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees and in ſome places with walls eight or ten feet high, to prevent travellers from going into the fields; but openings are left in proper places, which give a paſſage into croſs-roads that lead to different villages. Covered ſeats are erected on all the great roads, where travellers may ſhelter themſelves from the inclemency of the weather; temples and pagods are alſo frequent, into which travellers are admitted without ſcruple in the day-time, but often meet with a refuſal in the night. In theſe the mandarins only have a right to reſt themſelves as long as they think proper. There is, however, no want of inns on the great roads, or even the croſs ones, in China; but they are ill ſupplied with proviſions; and thoſe who frequent them are even obliged to carry beds along with them to ſleep on, or elſe take up with a plain mat.

Towers are erected on all the roads of this great empire, with watch-boxes on the top, with flag-ſtaffs, for the convenience of ſignals in caſe of any alarm. Theſe towers are ſquare, and generally conſtructed of brick, but ſeldom exceed twelve feet in height. They are built, however, in ſight of one another, and are guarded by ſoldiers, who run with great ſpeed from one to another, carrying letters which concern the emperor. Intelligence of any remarkable event is alſo conveyed by ſignals; and thus the court is informed with ſurpriſing quickneſs of any important matter. Thoſe which are built on any of the roads conducting to court are furniſhed with battlements, and have alſo very large bells of caſt iron.

There is no public poſt-office in China, though ſeveral private ones have been eſtabliſhed; but the couriers and officers charged with diſpatches for the empire have only a right to make uſe of them. This inconvenience excepted, travellers find conveyance very eaſy from one part of China to another. Great numbers of porters are employed in every city, all of whom are aſſociated under the conduct of a chief, who regulates all their engagements, fixes the price of their labour, receives their hire, and is reſponſible for every thing they carry. When porters are wanted, he furniſhes as many as may be neceſſary, and gives the ſame number of tickets to the traveller, who returns one to each porter when they have conveyed their loads to an appointed place. Theſe tickets are carried back to the chief, who immediately pays them from the money he received in advance. On all the great roads in China there are ſeveral offices of this kind, which have a ſettled correſpondence with others; the travellers therefore have only to carry to one of theſe offices a liſt of ſuch things as they wiſh to have tranſported: this is immediately written down in a book; and, though there ſhould be occaſion for two, three, or four, hundred porters, they are inſtantly furniſhed. Every thing is weighed before the eyes of their chief, and the hire is five-pence per hundred-weight for one day's carriage. An exact regiſter of every thing is kept in the office; the traveller pays the money in advance, after which he has no occaſion to give himſelf any farther trouble; on his arrival at the city he deſigns, his baggage is found at the correſponding office, and every thing is delivered to him with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs.

The cuſtom-houſes are here regulated by the general police of the country; and, according to M. Groſier's account, theſe cuſtom-houſe officers are the moſt civil in the world. They have no concern with any claſs of people but the merchants, whom they take care not to diſtreſs by any rigorous exactions; neither, though they have authority to do ſo, do they ſtop travellers till their baggage is examined, nor do they ever require the ſmalleſt fee from them. Du-

ties

ties are paid either by the piece or the load; and in the former caſe credit is given to the merchant's book without aſking any queſtions. A mandarin is appointed by the viceroy of each province to inſpect the cuſtom-houſes of the whole diſtrict; and the mandarins have alſo the care of the poſt-offices.

In former times the only money uſed in China was made of ſmall ſhells, but now both ſilver and copper coin are met with. The latter conſiſts of round pieces about nine-tenths of an inch in diameter, with a ſmall ſquare hole in the middle, inſcribed with two Chineſe words on one ſide, and two Tartar ones on the other. The ſilver pieces are valued only by their weight. For the convenience of commerce the metal is therefore caſt into plates of different ſizes; and, for want of ſmall coin, a Chineſe always carries about him his ſcales, weights, and a pair of ſciſſars to cut the metal. This operation is performed by putting the ſilver between the ſciſſars, and then knocking them againſt a ſtone till the pieces drop off. In giving change, people have no right to value ſilver by the numerical value of copper, this being entirely regulated by the intrinſic value of the metals. Thus, an ounce of ſilver will ſometimes be worth 1000 copper pieces, and ſometimes only 800; and thus the copper money of China may frequently be ſold for more than it would paſs for in commerce. The emperor would loſe much by this re-coinage, were he not the ſole proprietor of all the copper mines in China. It is, however, expreſsly forbidden to employ copper coin in any manufacture where it might be employed as plain copper, and it is alſo forbidden to be ſold for the purpoſe of melting; but, if the price of the metal has not fallen, the infraction of this law is not very ſeverely puniſhed. On the other hand, if the value of unwrought copper exceeds that of the coin, a quantity of the latter is iſſued out to reſtore the equilibrium.

To keep up a conſtant circulation of all the coin in the empire, the Chineſe government are attentive to preſerve an equilibrium between the proportional value of copper and ſilver; that is, to regulate the intrinſic value of each in ſuch a manner that the poſſeſſor of ſilver may not be afraid to exchange it for copper, nor the poſſeſſor of copper for ſilver. The method uſed for this purpoſe is, when ſilver becomes ſcarce, to make all the payments for ſome time in ſilver; but, if copper, to make them all for ſome time in that metal only.

Lending money upon intereſt has been in uſe in China for about 2000 years. It has often been aboliſhed, and as often re-eſtabliſhed. The intereſt, as has been already hinted, is no leſs than thirty per cent. and the year is only lunar. A tenth part of this intereſt is paid monthly; and, concerning neglects of payment, the following laws have been enacted: "However much the debt may have accumulated by months or years, the principal and intereſt ſhall remain always the ſame. Whoever infringes this law ſhall receive forty blows of a *pan-tſee*; or an hundred, if he uſes any artifice to add the principal and intereſt together." This law is explained by the following: Whoever ſhall be convicted before a mandarin of not having paid a month's intereſt ſhall receive ten blows; twenty for two months, and thirty for three; and in this manner as far as ſixty; that is to ſay, to the ſixth month. The debtor is then obliged to pay principal and intereſt; but thoſe who obtain payment by uſing violence and force are condemned to receive twenty-four blows.

Many Chineſe writers have endeavoured unſucceſsfully to ſhew why government ſhould allow ſuch exorbitant intereſt to be taken for money; but the moſt ſatisfactory and rational account ſeems to be, that the great intereſt of money prevents the rich from purchaſing much land; as landed eſtates would only embarraſs and impoveriſh them, their produce being ſo much inferior to that of money. The patrimony of a family in China is ſelom divided; and it never happens there, as in almoſt every other country, that wealth and riches are engroſſed by one part of the nation, while the other poſſeſſes nothing.

Agriculture is by the Chineſe conſidered as the firſt and moſt honourable of all profeſſions; ſo that in this empire the huſbandman enjoys many and great privileges, while the merchant and mechanic are much leſs eſteemed. Part of the crop is allowed to be uſed in diſtillation;

diſtillation; but, if the harveſt happens to be bad, this operation is prohibited. In China, the tillage of the earth is not only encouraged by law, but alſo by the example of the emperor, who annually tills the earth with his own hands. The beginning of ſpring in China is always reckoned to be in the month of February; but it belongs to the tribunal of mathematics to determine the preciſe day. The tribunal of ceremonies announces it to the emperor by a memorial; in which every thing requiſite to be done by him is mentioned with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs. The ſovereign then names twelve of the moſt illuſtrious perſons in his court to accompany him, and to hold the plough after he has performed his part of the ceremony. Among theſe there are always three princes of the blood, and nine preſidents of ſupreme courts; and, if any of them are too old and infirm to undergo the fatigue, the ſubſtitutes muſt be authoriſed by the emperor. The feſtival is preceded by a ſacrifice, which the emperor offers up to Chang-ti, (the ſupreme God;) after which he and his attendants prepare themſelves by three days faſting and continence. Others are appointed by the emperor, on the evening before the ceremony, to go and proſtrate themſelves at the ſepulchre of his anceſtors, and to acquaint them, that, on the day following, he intends to celebrate a grand ſacrifice. This is offered up on a ſmall mount a few furlongs diſtant from the city, which, by the indiſpenſable rules of the ceremony, muſt be fifty feet in height. The Chang-ti is invoked by the emperor, who ſacrifices under the title of ſovereign pontiff, and prays for an abundant harveſt in favour of his people. He then deſcends accompanied by the three princes and nine preſidents who are to put their hands to the plough along with him; the field ſet apart for this purpoſe being at a ſmall diſtance from the mount. Forty labourers are ſelected to yoke the oxen, and to prepare the ſeeds which the emperor is to ſow; and which are of five different kinds, viz. wheat, rice, two kinds of millet, and beans. They are brought to the ſpot in magnificent boxes, carried by perſons of the moſt diſtinguiſhed rank. The emperor then lays hold of the plough, and turns up ſeveral furrows; the princes of the blood do the ſame, and then the preſidents; after which the emperor throws into the furrows the five kinds of ſeeds already mentioned; laſtly, four pieces of cotton cloth, proper for making dreſſes, are diſtributed to each of the labourers who aſſiſt in yoking the oxen and preparing the ſeeds; and the ſame preſents are made to forty other perſons who have only been ſpectators of the ceremony.

We muſt not (ſays M. Groſier) judge of the Chineſe peaſants from thoſe of Europe, eſpecially in what relates to the lights acquired by education. Free ſchools are very numerous in every province of China, and even ſome of the villages are not deſtitute of this advantage. The ſons of the poor are there received as readily as thoſe of the rich; their duties and their ſtudies are the ſame; the attention of the maſters is equally divided between them; and from this obſcure ſource talents often ſpring, which afterwards make a conſpicuous figure on the grand ſtage of life. Nothing is more common in China than to ſee the ſon of a peaſant governor of that province in which his father had long toiled in cultivating only a few acres. The father himſelf, if taken from his plough, and elevated to a ſuperior ſphere, might, by reviving the inſtruction he received in his youth, and eſpecially if he be endowed with genius, find himſelf fully competent for his new employment.

The Chineſe have been greatly reproached with the inhuman practice of murdering their children; but, though our author cannot deny that they are guilty of this practice, he excuſes them by ſaying, that the crime when committed in China is commonly owing to the fanaticiſm of idolatry; a fanaticiſm which prevails only among the loweſt of the people. It is either in obedience to the oracle of a bonze, to deliver themſelves from the power of magic ſpells, or to diſcharge a vow, that theſe infatuated wretches precipitate their children into the river; they imagine that, by doing ſo, they make an expiatory ſacrifice to the ſpirit of the river. All nations of antiquity almoſt have diſgraced themſelves by the like horrid practices;

practices; but the Chineſe are far from countenancing this barbarity on that account. Beſides, theſe criminal ſacrifices are never practiſed but in certain cantons of China, where the people, blinded by idolatry, are the dupes of prejudice, fanaticiſm, and ſuperſtition. It often happens alſo, that the bodies of thoſe children which are ſeen floating on the water have not been thrown into it till after their death; and this is likewiſe the caſe with thoſe whichare found in the ſtreets, or lying near the public roads. The poverty of the parents ſuggeſts this diſmal reſource, becauſe their children are then buried at the expence of the public. Expoſing of children in public places is a cuſtom tolerated in China; and government employs as much vigilance to have them carried away in the morning as it beſtows care on their education. This is certainly giving people intimation to expoſe their children in the night-time, and nodoubt encourages the practice; but the dictates of humanity are here united to thoſe of ſound policy. No law in China authoriſes mutilation: there are indeed eunuchs in the empire, but their number is much leſs than what it is generally ſuppoſed to be by Europeans. The greater part of the eunuchs belonging to the emperor and empreſſes have no higher employment than that of ſweeping the courts of juſtice.

Like the capital cities of European kingdoms, Peking, the metropolis of the Chineſe empire, is furniſhed with a gazette, which circulates into the remoteſt provinces, and which is even conſidered by adminiſtration as an eſſential part of the political conſtitution. It is printed daily at Peking, and contains an account of all thoſe objects to which the attention of adminiſtration is directed. In this gazette may be ſeen the names of all thoſe mandarins who are ſtripped of their employments, and the cauſes of their diſgrace; it mentions alſo the names of all thoſe delinquents who are puniſhed with death; of the officers appointed to fill the places of the diſgraced mandarins; the calamities which have afflicted any of the provinces; the relief given by government; and the expences incurred by adminiſtration for the ſubſiſtence of the troops, ſupplying the wants of the people, repairing or erecting public works; and, laſtly, the remonſtrances made to the ſovereign by the ſuperior tribunals, either with regard to his public deciſions or private conduct, and ſometimes even with regard to both. Nothing, however, is contained in this gazette that has not immediately come from the emperor, or been ſubmitted to his inſpection; and immediate death would be the conſequence of inſerting a falſehood in this miniſterial paper.

No law or ſentence, as has already been ſaid, is of any force, until the emperor's ſeal has been affixed to it. This is about eight inchesſquare, and is made of fine jaſper, a kind of precious ſtone much eſteemed in China; of which only the emperor is allowed to have a ſeal. Thoſe given to princes as marks of honour are compoſed of gold; the ſeals of the viceroys and great mandarins of ſilver; while thoſe of inferior mandarins and magiſtrates are made only of lead or copper. The ſize of thoſe ſeals is greater or ſmaller according to the rank their poſſeſſors hold in the tribunals or as mandarins; and, when any of them happens to be worn out, intimation muſt be ſent to the next ſuperior tribunal; on which a new one is ſent, and the old one muſt then be delivered up. The commiſſion of every inſpector ſent into the provinces muſt alſo be confirmed by the emperor's ſeal. The duty of theſe officers is to examine into the conduct of governors, magiſtrates, and private individuals; and inſtances are recorded of emperors themſelves aſſuming the office of inſpectors in ſome of the provinces. Theſe officers are not only ſuperior to all the magiſtrates, but even to the viceroys of the provinces themſelves. When a ſuperior magiſtrate behaves ill to an inferior one, the former inſtantly becomes the priſoner of the inſpector, and is ſuſpended from his office until he has cleared himſelf from every imputation laid to his charge. The viceroy, however, is allowed to enjoy his office until the report of the inſpector has been tranſmitted to the emperor.

Theſe viceroys are diſtinguiſhed by the title of Tſong-tou, and are always mandarins of the firſt claſs, poſſeſſing an almoſt unlimited power within their diſtricts. They march abroad with all the

the pomp of royal magnificence, never quitting their palaces, on the moſt trifling occaſion, without a guard of 100 men. A viceroy is the receiver-general of all the taxes collected in the province, tranſmitting them to the capital, after having reſerved what he judges neceſſary for the demands of his diſtrict. All law-ſuits muſt be brought before his tribunal; and he has the power of paſſing ſentence of death, but it cannot be put in execution without being firſt carried to the emperor. Every three years he ſends to court a report of the conduct of the mandarins ſubordinate to him; and according to the contents they are either continued or diſgraced. Thoſe of whom he makes an unfavourable report are puniſhed in proportion to their delinquency; while, on the other hand, thoſe who have the good fortune to be well reported are rewarded in a ſimilar proportion.

The principal mandarins are ſometimes broken and diſmiſſed from all their employments, while others are only removed ſome degrees lower. Thoſe who have been degraded ten ſteps run a great riſk of never being employed again. Theſe degraded mandarins are kept in perpetual remembrance of their misfortune, by being obliged to mention it in every public order they iſſue forth in their inferior ſtation; thus, "I, ſuch a mandarin, degraded, one, two, three, &c. ſteps, command and order," &c. Over theſe inferior mandarins the inſpector of the province has a very unlimited authority, and can, by his own power, deprive them of their employments for a great offence; nor does he conſult the court, excepting where the immediate puniſhment of the criminal is not neceſſary. Every one of the mandarins, of whatever rank or denomination, is obliged, once in three years, to give in writing an exact account of the faults he has committed in the execution of his office. If he is a mandarin belonging to any of the four firſt claſſes, this confeſſion is examined at court; but, if it is made by any of the inferior ones, it muſt be laid before the provincial tribunal of the governor. Government, however, is not ſatisfied even with this confeſſion; enquiry is made into the truth of it, and the conduct of the mandarin is ſcrutinized with the utmoſt ſeverity, the informations being ſubjected to the tribunal of mandarins; where they are carefully examined, the merits and demerits of thoſe ſubjected to this political inquiſition carefully balanced, and their names afterwards divided into three claſſes. The firſt conſiſts of thoſe for whom rewards and preferment are intended; the ſecond, for whom gentle reproof and admonition are thought neceſſary; and the third, for thoſe who are to be ſuſpended for ſome time, or removed altogether, from their offices. Of theſe laſt ſome are allowed to continue; but they receive no ſalary, and are not only deprived of all their emoluments, but even of their honours. If they have been guilty of any action tending to oppreſs the people, or to occaſion a famine or ſcarcity among the lower ranks, their puniſhment is not confined to diſmiſſion from their offices, but they are alſo criminally impeached. The family burying-place of every Chineſe is accounted ſacred; none dares cut down the trees with which it is overſhadowed until they become decayed with age; and, even then, not until their condition has been atteſted by a mandarin; but, for certain crimes againſt government or the people, the burying-place of a mandarin is raſed to the foundation. No kind of puniſhment, however, inflicted on a father, is ſuppoſed in the leaſt to affect the character of his ſon; and therefore, when the latter is aſked by the emperor concerning his family, he will perhaps coolly anſwer, "My father was diſgraced for ſuch a crime, my grandfather was beheaded for ſuch another," without the acknowledgement being in the leaſt detrimental. On the contrary, by great and important ſervices, it is poſſible for him to wipe out thoſe ſtains from the memory of his anceſtors.

Though the empire of China is governed by Tartar princes, the latter ſeem to beſtow much more care and attention on the Chineſe than their own natural ſubjects. Should any diſpute ariſe between a Chineſe and a Tartar, the former muſt have greatly deviated from the rules of juſtice if he is not acquitted even by thoſe tribunals which are compoſed of half Chineſe and half Tartars. The ſlighteſt fault committed by a Tartar mandarin is always ſeverely

verely puniſhed; but the puniſhment of the Chineſe is often mitigated if the delinquent be a Chineſe; and the ſame ſeverity is exerciſed towards thoſe of the military department. Thoſe faults are puniſhed with the greateſt ſeverity which hurt the intereſts of the people; for which reaſon they ſeldom fall a ſacrifice to that claſs of petty tyrants who in other countries prey upon and devour them. Every ſuperior mandarin is obliged to inform himſelf of the faults of his inferiors, and expoſe them; nay, he would be puniſhed for them himſelf if he did not.

Very little regard, as we have already had occaſion to obſerve, is paid to hereditary right in China. Even the princes of the blood enjoy no other privilege by birth than that of wearing a yellow girdle; and the names of their children, with the exact time of their birth, are inſcribed in a yellow book appropriated to that purpoſe. Collateral princes are diſtinguiſhed by an orange girdle, and their children are marked in a book of a red colour. The ſurnames of the princes of the reigning family are determined by the emperor alone; the reſt not being allowed to aſſume any name that too much reſembles thoſe of the Moguls or Chineſe. The rank even of the emperor's ſons diminiſhes one degree every generation; ſo that at the ſeventh, only the eldeſt branch has a title to wear the yellow girdle, the reſt being ſunk into the rank of plain citizens. An hereditary ſovereignty, however, paſſes from one eldeſt ſon to another; and this title cannot be forfeited, unleſs the poſſeſſor be guilty of ſome crime. In this caſe the emperor appoints to the ſucceſſion either one of his younger brothers or a couſin; but theſe muſt be always choſen from the ſame branch, as the lawful branch cannot be deprived of its right without the condemnation of all who compoſe it. The only hereditary authority of the other princes exiſts among thoſe troops called the Tartar bands. There they enjoy, without oppoſition, that rank which they derive from their birth, but in every thing elſe are on a level with others. They are ſubjected to a military examination at ſtated periods, and are always promoted or degraded according to the degree of ſkill they exhibit. The ſame trial is undergone by the heir apparent and his ſons; the only indulgence ſhewn them being, that ſchools are appointed for their particular uſe. The princes are likewiſe indulged with a tribunal appropriated on purpoſe for them, and before which alone they can be tried. An inſult offered to a prince decorated with the yellow girdle is puniſhed with death; but, if he has omitted to put it on, the aggreſſor eſcapes with a baſtinading. A prince may be put to death by the emperor's conſent; but he eſcapes every ſlighter corporal puniſhment by paying a fine. Untitled princes have very few privileges ſuperior to thoſe of common citizens; and are in general very poor, unleſs poſſeſſed of ſome lucrative office. Thus they are ſometimes reduced to the neceſſity of accepting the higheſt pay of a common ſoldier in the Tartar bands. When they, or any of their children, enter into the marriage ſtate, the emperor uſually makes them a preſent of 100 ounces of ſilver. He will alſo relieve them on other occaſions, aſſiſt their widows and orphans, &c. but in all this never departs from the moſt exact rules of economy; ſo that the mandarins in this reſpect are often much better off than even the relations of the ſovereign himſelf.

[*To be continued.*]

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

EARL OF ESSEX AND QUEEN ELIZABETH.

ROBERT earl of Eſſex was the ſon of Walter Devereux viſcount Hereford, born at Netherwood, in Herefordſhire, in the year 1567. He ſucceeded to the title of Earl of Eſſex at ten years of age; and about two years after was ſent, by his guardian, Lord Burleigh, to Trinity-college in Cambridge. He took the degree of maſter of arts in 1582, and ſoon after retired to his ſeat at Lamſie in South Wales. He did not however continue long in this retreat; for we find him in his ſeventeenth year, at the court of Queen

Elizabeth, who immediately honoured him with ſingular marks of her favour. Authors ſeem very unneceſſarily perplexed to account for this young earl's gracious reception at the court of Elizabeth. The reaſons are obvious: he was her relation, the ſon of one of her moſt faithful ſervants, the ſon-in-law of her favourite Leiceſter, and a very handſome and accompliſhed youth. Towards the end of the following year, 1585, he attended the Earl of Leiceſter to Holland; and gave ſignal proofs of his perſonal courage during the campaign of 1586, particularly at the battle of Zutphen, where the gallant Sidney was mortally wounded. On this occaſion the Earl of Leiceſter conferred on him the honour of knight-banneret.

In the year 1587, Leiceſter being appointed lord-ſteward of the houſehold, Eſſex ſucceeded him in the honourable poſt of maſter of the horſe; and the year following, when the queen aſſembled an army at Tilbury to oppoſe the Spaniſh invaſion, Eſſex was made general of the horſe. From this time he was conſidered as the happy favourite of the queen. And, if there was any mark yet wanting to fix the people's opinion in that reſpect, it was ſhewn by the queen's conferring on him the honour of the garter.

We need not wonder, that ſo quick an elevation, and to ſo great a height, ſhould affect ſo young a man as the Earl of Eſſex; who ſhewed from henceforward a very high ſpirit, and often behaved petulantly enough to the queen herſelf, who yet did not love to be controlled by her ſubjects. His eagerneſs about this time to diſpute her favour with Sir Charles Blunt, afterwards Lord Montjoy and Earl of Devonſhire, coſt him ſome blood; for Sir Charles, thinking himſelf affronted by the earl, challenged him, and, after a ſhort diſpute, wounded him in the knee. The queen, ſo far from being diſpleaſed with it, is ſaid to have ſworn a good round oath, that it was fit ſomebody ſhould take him down, otherwiſe there would be no ruling him. However, ſhe reconciled the rivals; who, to their honour, continued good friends as long as they lived.

The gallant Eſſex, however, was not ſo entirely captivated with his ſituation, as to become inſenſible to the allurements of military glory. In 1589, Sir John Norris and Sir Francis Drake having ſailed on an expedition againſt Spain, our young favourite, without the permiſſion or knowledge of his royal miſtreſs, followed the fleet; which he joined as they were ſailing towards Liſbon, and acted with great reſolution in the repulſe of the Spaniſh garriſon of that city. The queen wrote him a very ſevere letter on the occaſion; but ſhe was, after his return, ſoon appeaſed. Yet it was not long before he again incurred her diſpleaſure, by marrying the widow of Sir Philip Sidney. In 1591, he was ſent to France with the command of 4000 men to the aſſiſtance of Henry IV. In 1596, he was joined with the Lord High Admiral Howard in the command of the famous expedition againſt Cadiz, the ſucceſs of which is univerſally known. In 1597, he was appointed maſter of the ordnance; and the ſame year commanded another expedition againſt Spain, called the Iſland voyage, the particulars of which are alſo well known.

Soon after his return, he was created earl marſhal of England; and on the death of the great Lord Burleigh, in 1598, elected chancellor of the univerſity of Cambridge. This is reckoned one of the laſt inſtances of this great man's felicity, who was now advanced too high to ſit at eaſe; and thoſe who longed for his honours and employments very cloſely applied themſelves to bring about his fall. The firſt great ſhock he received in regard to the queen's favour, aroſe from a warm diſpute between her majeſty and himſelf, about the choice of ſome fit and able perſons to ſuperintend the affairs of Ireland. The affair is related by Camden; who tells us, that nobody was preſent but the lord admiral, Sir Robert Cecil, ſecretary, and Windebank, clerk of the ſeal. The queen looked upon Sir William Knolls, uncle to Eſſex, as the moſt proper perſon for that charge; Eſſex contended, that Sir George Carew was a much fitter man for it. When the queen could not be perſuaded to approve his choice, he ſo far forgot himſelf and his duty, as to turn his back upon her in a contemptuous manner; which inſolence her majeſty not being able to bear, gave him

a box

a box on the ear, and bade him go and be hanged. Eſſex, like a blockhead, put his hand to his ſword, and ſwore revenge. Where was his gallantry on this occaſion? could a ſtroke from an angry woman tinge the honour of a gallant ſoldier. This violent ſtorm, however, ſoon ſubſided: and they were again reconciled, at leaſt apparently.

The total reduction of Ireland being brought upon the tapis ſoon after, the earl was pitched upon as the only man from whom it could be expected. This was an artful contrivance of his enemies, who hoped by this means to ruin him; nor were their expectations diſappointed. He declined this fatal preferment as long as he could: but, perceiving that he ſhould have no quiet at home, he accepted; and his commiſſion for lord lieutenant paſſed the great ſeal on the 12th of March, 1598. His enemies now began to inſinuate that he had ſought this command for the ſake of greater things which he then was meditating; but there is a letter of his to the queen, preſerved in the Harleian collections, which ſhews, that he was ſo far from entering upon it with alacrity, that he looked upon it rather as a baniſhment, and a place aſſigned him for a retreat from his ſovereign's diſpleaſure, than a potent government beſtowed upon him by her favour. "*To the Queen.* From a mind delighting in ſorrow; from ſpirits waſted with paſſion; from a heart torn in pieces with care, grief, and travail; from a man that hateth himſelf, and all things elſe that keep him alive; what ſervice can your majeſty expect, ſince any ſervice paſt deſerves no more than baniſhment and proſcription to the curſedeſt of all iſlands? It is your rebel's pride and oppreſſion muſt give me leave to ranſom myſelf out of the hateful priſon, out of my loathed body; which if it happen ſo, your majeſty ſhall have no cauſe to miſlike the faſhion of my death, ſince the courſe of my life could never pleaſe you.

Happy he could finiſh forth his fate
In ſome unhaunted deſart, moſt obſcure
From all ſociety, from love and hate
Of worldly folk; then ſhould he ſleep ſecure.

Then wake again, and yield God ever praiſe,
Content with hips and haws, and bramble-berry;
In contemplation paſſing out his days,
And change of holy thoughts to make him merry.

Who when he dies, his tomb may be a buſh
Where harmleſs robin dwells with gentle thruſh.

Your majeſty's exiled ſervant,
ROBERT ESSEX."

The earl met with nothing in Ireland but ill ſucceſs and croſſes: in the midſt of which, an army was ſuddenly raiſed in England, under the command of the Earl of Nottingham; nobody well knowing why, but in reality from the ſuggeſtions of the earl's enemies to the queen, that he rather meditated an invaſion on his native country than the reduction of the Iriſh rebels. This and other conſiderations made him reſolve to quit his poſt, and come over to England; which he accordingly did without leave. He burſt into her majeſty's bed-chamber as ſhe was riſing, and ſhe received him with a mixture of tenderneſs and ſeverity: but ſhe, ſoon after, thought fit to deprive him of all his employments except that of maſter of the horſe. He was committed to the cuſtody of the lord keeper, with whom he continued ſix months. No ſooner had he regained his liberty than he was guilty of many extravagancies; to which he was inſtigated by knaves and fools, but perhaps more powerfully by his own paſſions. He firſt determined to obtain an audience of the queen by force. He refuſed to attend the council when ſummoned. When the queen ſent the lord keeper, the lord chief juſtice, and two others, to know his grievances, he confined them; and then marched with his friends into the city, in expectation that the people would riſe in his favour; but in that he was diſappointed. He was at laſt beſieged and taken in his houſe in Eſſex-ſtreet; committed to the tower; tried by his peers, condemned, and executed. Thus did this brave man, this favourite of his queen, this idol of the people, fall a ſacrifice to his want of that diſſimulation, that cunning, that court-policy, by which his enemies were enabled to effect his ruin. He was a polite ſcholar and a generous friend to literature.

To

To thoſe who have not taken the trouble to conſult and compare the ſeveral authors who have related the ſtory of this unfortunate earl, it muſt appear wonderful, if, as hath been ſuggeſted, he was really beloved by Queen Elizabeth, that ſhe could conſent to his execution. Now that ſhe had conceived a tender paſſion for him, is proved beyond a doubt by Mr. Walpole in his very entertaining and inſtructive Catalogue of Noble Authors:—"I am aware (ſays that author) that it is become a mode to treat the queen's paſſion for him as a romance. Voltaire laughs at it; and obſerves, that, when her ſtruggle about him muſt have been the greateſt, (the time of his death,) ſhe was ſixty-eight.—Had he been ſixty-eight, it is probable ſhe would not have been in love with him."—"Whenever Eſſex acted a fit of ſickneſs, not a day paſſed without the queen's ſending often to ſee him; and once went ſo far as to ſit long by him, and order his broths and things. It is recorded by a diligent obſerver of that court, that, in one of his ſick moods, he took the liberty of going up to the queen in his night-gown. In the height of theſe fretful fooleries, there was a maſk at Blackfriars on the marriage of Lord Herbert and Mrs. Ruſſel. Eight lady-maſkers choſe eight more to dance the meaſures. Mrs. Fitton, who led them, went to the queen and wooed her to dance. Her majeſty aſked what ſhe was? Affection, ſhe ſaid. Affection! ſaid the queen; Affection is falſe.—Were not theſe the murmurs of a heart ill at eaſe? Yet her majeſty roſe, and danced. She was then ſixty-eight. Sure it was as natural for her to be in love."

Mr. Walpole farther obſerves, that her court and cotemporaries had an uniform opinion of her paſſion for Eſſex, and quotes ſeveral inſtances from a letter written by Sir Francis Bacon to the earl; in which, among other things, he adviſes him to conſult her taſte in his very apparel and geſtures, and to give way to any other inclination ſhe may have. Sir Francis adviſed the queen herſelf, knowing her inclination, to keep the earl about her for ſociety. What Henry IV. of France thought of the queen's affection for Eſſex, is evident from what he ſaid to her ambaſſador—"*Que ſa majeſté ne laiſſeroit jamais ſon couſin d'Eſſex eloigner de ſon cotillon.*"—After his confinement, on hearing he was ill, ſhe ſent him word, with tears in her eyes, that, if ſhe might with her honour, ſhe would viſit him.

"If (ſays Mr. Walpole) theſe inſtances are problematic, are the following ſo? In one of the curious letters of Rowland White, he ſays, *The queen hath of late uſed the fair Mrs. Bridges with words and blows of anger.* In a ſubſequent letter, he ſays, *The earl is again fallen in love with his faireſt B. It cannot chooſe but to come to the queen's ear, and then he is undone.*"—Eſſex himſelf ſays, that her fond parting with him, when he ſet out for Ireland, pierced his very ſoul.

Probably the reader has now very little doubt as to Queen Elizabeth's affection for the unfortunate Eſſex; but, in proportion to our belief of the exiſtence of the affection, her motives for conſenting to his execution become more inexplicable. Queen Elizabeth had a very high opinion of her beauty and perſonal attractions, and probably expected more entire adoration than the earl's paſſion for variety would ſuffer him to pay. Towards the latter end of her life, ſhe was certainly an object of diſguſt. He had too much honeſt ſimplicity in his nature to feign a paſſion which he did not feel. She fooliſhly gave credit to the ſtories of his ambitious projects incompatible with her ſafety; and was informed that he had once inadvertently ſaid, that "ſhe grew old and cankered, and that her mind was become as crooked as her carcaſe." If this be true, where is the woman that would not ſacrifice ſuch a lover to her reſentment?

It is ſaid, however, that, concerning his execution, her majeſty was irreſolute to the laſt, and ſent orders to countermand it; but, conſidering his obſtinacy in refuſing to aſk her pardon, afterwards directed that he ſhould die. It is reported, that the queen, in the height of her paſſion for the Earl of Eſſex, had given him a ring, ordering him to keep it, and that, whatever crime he ſhould commit, ſhe would pardon him when he ſhould return that pledge. The earl, upon his condemnation, applied to Admiral Howard's

lady, his relation, deſiring her, by a perſon whom ſhe could truſt, to return it into the queen's own hands; but her huſband, who was one of the earl's greateſt enemies, and to whom ſhe had imprudently told the circumſtance, would not ſuffer her to acquit herſelf of the commiſſion; ſo that the queen conſented to the earl's death, being full of indignation againſt ſo proud and haughty a ſpirit, who choſe rather to die than implore her mercy. Some time after the admiral's lady fell ſick, and, being near her death, ſhe ſent word to the queen that ſhe had ſomething of great conſequence to communicate before ſhe died. The queen came to her bed-ſide, and, having ordered all her attendants to withdraw, the lady returned, but too late, the ring, deſiring to be excuſed that ſhe did not return it ſooner: on which the queen immediately retired, overwhelmed with grief and remorſe.

HISTORY OF THE MERMAID.

HOWEVER naturaliſts may doubt of the reality of mermaids and mermen, we have teſtimony enough to eſtabliſh it; though, how far theſe teſtimonies may be authentic, we cannot take upon us to ſay. In the year 1187, as Lary informs us, ſuch a monſter was fiſhed up in the county of Suffolk, and kept by the governor for ſix months. It bore ſo near a conformity with man, that nothing ſeemed wanting to it but ſpeech. One day it took the opportunity of making its eſcape; and, plunging into the ſea, was never more heard of.

In the year 1430, after a moſt violent tempeſt, which broke down the dikes in Holland, and made way for the ſea into the meadows, &c. ſome girls of the town of Edam in Weſt Freezeland, going in a boat to milk their cows, perceived a mermaid embarraſſed in the mud with a very little water. They took it into their boat, and brought it with them to Edam, dreſſed it in woman's apparel, and taught it to ſpin. It fed like one of them, but could never be brought to offer at ſpeech. Some time afterwards it was brought to Haerlem, where it lived for ſome years, though ſtill ſhewing an inclination to the water. Parival relates, that they had given it ſome notion of a Deity, and that it made its reverence very devoutly whenever it paſſed by a crucifix. *Délices de Hollande.*

In the year 1560, near the iſland of Manar, on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland of Ceylon, ſome fiſhermen brought up, at one draught of a net, ſeven mermen and mermaids; of which ſeveral Jeſuits, and among the reſt F. Hen. Henriques and Dimas Boſquez, phyſicians to the viceroy of Goa, were witneſſes. The phyſician, who examined them with a great deal of care, and made diſſection thereof, aſſerts, that all the parts both internal and external were found perfectly conformable to thoſe of men. See the *Hiſtoire de la Compagnie de Jeſus*, p. ii. tom. iv. No. 276. where the relation is given at length.

We have another account of a merman, ſeen near the great rock called *Diamond*, on the coaſt of Martinico. The perſons who ſaw it gave in a preciſe deſcription of it before a notary. They affirmed that they ſaw it wipe its hand over its face, and even heard it blow its noſe.

Another creature of the ſame ſpecies was caught in the Baltic in the year 1531, and ſent as a preſent to Sigiſmond king of Poland, with whom it lived three days, and was ſeen by all the court. Another very young one was taken near Rocca de Sintra, as related by Damian Goes. The King of Portugal and the grand-maſter of the order of St. James are ſaid to have had a ſuit at law to determine which of them theſe monſters belonged to.

In Pontopidan's Natural Hiſtory of Norway, alſo, we have accounts of mermaids; but not more remarkable or any way better atteſted than the above.

In 1613 a mermaid was taken in the harbour of Cherbourg, after a violent ſtorm, and was carried by the mayor of that place as a preſent to the French court; but, dying before it reached Verſailles, it was afterwards ſhewn publicly in the ſtreets of Paris.

TRAITE

TRAITE ON GEN. DUMOURIER. [*With a fine* PORTRAIT.]

GENERAL Dumourier is now in his ſixty-third year, but as active as if he was not above forty. He is a thin man, ſomewhat under the middle ſize, his noſe large and prominent, and his eyes very dark and animated.—However celebrated he has been in the field for perſonal atchievements, he is not leſs remarkable as a negociator, for he has been at the bottom of half the intrigues that have been practiſed at Paris, and he was able to purſue, and to manage, and to dictate, theſe, in the midſt of his moſt hazardous enterprizes.—Prior to his ſucceeding to the command of La Fayette's army, he had a duel with that gentleman. They fought with ſwords, and Dumourier wounded him in the ſide. Of all the military men that perhaps ever lived, there is no one who has expoſed himſelf to more perſonal hazard than Dumourier. He has had various horſes ſhot under him: he has led on regiments, both of horſe and foot, to the very mouth of the cannon of the enemy, and has repeatedly rode from right to left in the midſt of a heavy diſcharge of artillery, and back again, while the ſuite that followed him have almoſt all been killed—yet he never received the ſmalleſt wound.—The particulars of the battle of Jemappe, where he moſt ſignalized himſelf, are not generally known: they are as follow:—The Auſtrians were entrenched up to their chins upon an eminence. The French were in the plains below. The Auſtrians had 17,000 men in the field. The French had 65,000. On the flanks Gen. Dumourier put all the old ſoldiers, who he was confident would not run away. In the centre he had all the Paris volunteers, and all the recruits from every part of the country. Behind them he had a range of artillery. Before the onſet he let every man drink what brandy he choſe. They began, for the firſt time, in the afternoon, and were beaten back. That night the French lay upon their arms, and the next morning more brandy was given to them, and the volunteers went on with great ſpirit up to the entrenchments, and were mowed down by the Auſtrian artillery by hundreds. In a ſhort time the French gave way in the centre, on which General Dumourier ordered the artillery that were in the rear to fire upon his own men, and ſtop their retreat. They were then obliged to turn, though thouſands had fallen by this time, and the Auſtrians had ſcarcely loſt a man. A ſecond time the centre gave way, and the Auſtrians incautiouſly left their entrenchments to purſue them. This was what Dumourier wiſhed, and with his own flank he turned the wings of the Auſtrian army, and got behind them in their entrenchments. Here great ſlaughter was made of the Auſtrians, who loſt in all about 3,500 men. The French loſt about 14,000, who were left dead on the field of battle.—Dumourier, during the greater part of the engagement, threw off his coat and waiſtcoat, and fought as a common ſoldier; and thus far he reſcues his name from the odium that attends the murder of his own men, that on no occaſion did he ever ſpare himſelf.

The moſt diſgraceful part of Dumourier's character is that of his apoſtacy in deſerting to the allies, and in attempting to ſuborn his army. There is only one apology that can be made for it, namely, that of ſaving his head, which was certainly doomed to the guillotine. For this purpoſe a decree, ordering him to appear at the bar, was carried againſt him in the convention, and Beurnonville, with five of its members, accompanied by a ſecretary, were ordered to bring him a priſoner to Paris.—Dumourier, having intelligence of what was paſſing, aſſembled his choſen troops, which conſiſted of from 18 to 20,000 men, and aſked them if any part of his conduct had merited that he ſhould be condemned as a traitor? They all cried with one voice, that he had behaved with great courage, and that they moſt deſerved the appellation who had called him ſo. Soon as the commiſſioners arrived, and Beurnonville had made known their errand, Dumourier affected to receive them with great civility, and invited them to the Place d'Armes, where they had no ſooner come, than he immediately put them under arreſt, reproaching them with their folly in having undertaken ſuch a buſineſs. He then took from them their ſwords, and ſent them under a file of grenadiers to the Auſtrian army, as priſoners of war. A repreſentation of this ſingular tranſaction, elegantly engraved, is given in this Magazine.

POETRY.

POETRY.

The CAPTIVITY of CARACTACUS.

THICK roſe the lances dy'd in Britiſh gore:
With ſcar-entrenched limbs and ſhining mail,
Their blood-ſtain'd plumage nodding to the gale,
The lords of empire darken'd Albion's ſhore,
His dreary conqueſt, ſhaggy, waſte, and rude,
High from the prow the imperial eagle view'd:
Beneath the proud bird's hateful ſhade
Siluria's captured prince was laid
Silent and ſtill and ſtern; the conqueror foe
Shook at the ſavage firmneſs of his brow,
While as the broad keel plough'd the briny way.
O'er the pale cliffs, that leſſen'd to the ſight,
The bearded Bards, in robes of radient white,
With harps that glitter'd to the orb of day,
Along the calm cerulean main
Pour'd a bold inſpiring ſtrain;
And bade their monarch's towering ſoul
Proudly upborn diſdain a foe's controul,
As Penmanmaur uplifts its awful form,
Aſſail'd by ocean-waves and Cambria's mountain ſtorm.

Catch, O Rome, in ſwelling ſails,
Fickle fortune's favouring gales;
Flutter in your ſunny noon;
Night and ſtorms will gather ſoon.
Ev'n now, o'er foreſts gloomy, joyleſs, rude,
'Mid ſavage wolves, and winter's famiſh'd brood,
The deepening tempeſt darkly lowers;
Erewhile to burſt on Cæſar's myrtle bowers;
And deluge Tiber's vales, and ſhatter Rome's high towers.

O prince, when loos'd from mortal clay
Thy ſpirit mounts th'aerial way,
And joins our fathers' armed ſhades
Brandiſhing their gleamy blades,
Tell them the cauſe in which they dy'd,
Is Albion's buckler, Albion's pride:
Tell them each ſpot, whereon they bled,
With life-blood of the foe is red:
Tell them our babes are taught to wield
The curtled axe and bloody ſhield:
Though Rome's aerial eagles, ſtreaming gore,
Sails darkly ſhadowing Britain's naked ſhore;
Though frowning from the cliff's projected height
Her haughty battlements our plains affright;
Yet tell them, their own dauntleſs zeal,
To guard and dignify our country's weal,
Glows in their faithful ſons: and, when again
They draw the morning gale on Sarum's plain,
Their limbs ſhall move unſhackled, and their veins
Wander through ſinews undebas'd by chains.

Go then, O Albion's pride, and dauntleſs ſtand
At Cæſar's throne: think on thy native land,
Thy long illuſtrious line of free-born ſires,
And the proud blood that circles through thy veins.
Though low debas'd by chains,
Tho'pale and waſted bythe tyrant's hand,
'Tis thine to glow with thy fam'd father's fires;
To bear unconquer'd the high mind;
Thy dignity of being to revere:
What great ſouls own, what generous warriors feel,
In ſimple boldneſs to reveal;
Though their own Jove, with red right arm uprais'd,
In which the forked lightning blaz'd,
Sat, as prepar'd to ſtrike, and bent his brow ſevere.

So Claudius, laid on Tiber's viny mounds,
Beneath Campania's ſunny ſkies,
And lull'd by muſic's tendereſt ſounds;
Ev'n he ſhall glow
With generous envy towards a captive foe;
And bluſhing wiſh, that far from ſhady bowers,
Imperial domes, and ſpiry towers,
His infant limbs had roll'd in Cambrian ſnow;
That Freedom, near romantic Vaga's tide,
Had hung her gleaming faulchion at his ſide;
While the keen northern blaſt
Harden'd his manly ſinews as it paſs'd;
And the ſteep mountain hoar,
And the wild torrents roar,
Maintain'd that inborn nobleneſs of mind,
Which lifts and dignifies our common kind,
Firm as Plimlimmon's baſe, and free as ocean-wind.

FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

DUKE of YORK's ARMY.

GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

WHITEHALL, *Aug.* 28.

THE following diſpatch was this morning received from Col. Sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highneſs the Duke of York, at the office of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

Lefferinck's Hocke, Aug. 26.

Sir, I have the honour to inform you, that his royal highneſs intended upon the 24th to attack the enemy, who were ſtill poſted at ſome diſtance from Dunkirk, in order to get poſſeſſion of the ground which it was neceſſary to occupy previous to the ſiege. They haſtened the execution of this deſign by attacking the out-poſts between the canal of Furnes and the ſea. Lieutenant-general Dalton advanced with the reſerve, which was encamped upon that ſide, to their ſupport. The enemy were repulſed, and driven, with loſs, into the town. One piece of cannon and a few priſoners were taken. The ardour of the troops carried them further in the purſuit than was intended, ſo that they came under the cannon of the place, by which means a conſiderable loſs has been ſuſtained. This was likelier to happen, and more difficult to be prevented, from the nature of the country, which is covered with trees and ſtrong encloſures.

Lieutenant-general Dalton was killed with a cannon-ſhot towards the concluſion of the attack. The loſs of this excellent officer muſt be ſeverely felt. The courage and ability, which he has diſplayed in the courſe of many campaigns, raiſed him to the higheſt rank of eſtimation in the army in which he ſerved.

His royal highneſs has likewiſe to lament that of Col. Eld, of the Coldſtream regiment, and of other valuable men. The troops behaved with their uſual courage. The two Britiſh battalions which were engaged were commanded by Col. Leigh and Major Mathews, and the grenadier battalion of Heſſians by Lieut.-general Wurmb.—His royal highneſs is particularly ſenſible of the exertions of Major-general Abercrombie and Major-general Verneck, who were with the advanced-guard, as likewiſe of thoſe of Lieutenant-general Wurmb.

The army have taken up the ground which his royal highneſs intended they ſhould occupy: the advanced poſts are now within a ſhort diſtance of the town.

I am, &c. JAMES MURRAY.

Return of the Killed, Wounded, and Miſſing, of the Britiſh and Heſſian Troops, in the Action of Auguſt 24.

BRITISH.

Flank battalion of foot-guards: 1 captain 1 ſerjeant, 8 rank and file, killed; 1 lieutenant, 25 rank and file, wounded.

Flank battalion of infantry: 5 rank and file killed, 25 ditto wounded, 1 ditto miſſing.

Royal artillery: 3 rank and file killed; 1 lieutenant, 7 rank and file, wounded.

Total: 1 captain, 1 ſerjeant, 16 rank and file, killed: 2 lieutenants, 57 rank and file, wounded; 1 ditto miſſing.

HESSIANS.

1 captain, 2 lieutenants, 13 rank and file, killed: 1 lieut.-col. 2 lieutenants, 36 rank and file, wounded.

Names of Officers killed and wounded.

Firſt regiment of foot-guards: Capt. Williams, wounded.

Coldſtream: Lieutenant-col. Eld, killed.

Royal artillery: Lieut. Wilſon wounded.

J. ST. LEGER, Dep. Adj. Gen.

GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

WHITEHALL, *Sept.* 11.

Mr. Lawry, lieutenant of his majeſty's fire-ſhip the Comet, arrived this afternoon with a diſpatch from Colonel Sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highneſs the Duke of York, of which the following is a copy.

FURNES, *Sept.* 9.

Sir, It is with extreme ſorrow that I have to acquaint you with the unfortunate event of an attack which the French army made upon that of Field-marſhal Freytag upon the 18th inſt. The latter was poſted at Honſchoote, the right upon the canal, the left extending towards Leyrel.

The enemy had made an attack the preceding evening, in which they had been repulſed; but upon that day attacking upon every point, notwithſtanding the greateſt exertions of bravery in the troops, and of ability in General Walmoden, who then commanded them, they ſucceeded in forcing the centre of his line. He retired behind the ſmall canal which runs from Bulſam to Steenkirk.

The loſs has been very ſevere. His royal highneſs has not as yet received any return, nor have any further particulars been tranſmitted. Many gallant officers have fallen. The whole loſs in the different actions is ſuppoſed to be near 1500 in

in killed, wounded, and miſſing; that of the enemy has been unqueſtionably greater. Three pieces of cannon, and between two and three hundred priſoners, have been taken. I underſtand that the Hanoverians have loſt the ſame number of cannon.

Upon the 7th his royal highneſs ſent two battalions of Heſſians to Gen. Walmoden's ſupport; but, finding that aid to be ineffectual, he was reduced to the neceſſity of collecting his whole force, by abandoning the poſition he had taken near Dunkirk. Thirty-two of the heavy guns, and part of the ſtores provided for the ſiege, were left behind, there being no means of carrying them off. The army marched laſt night, and encamped this morning near Adinkerque.

It appears that the enemy had collected force for this enterpriſe from every quarter of the country, from the armies of the Rhine and Moſelle, and particularly that which had occupied the Camp de Cæſar. They were commanded by General Houchard, who is ſaid by the priſoners (though with what degree of truth cannot be aſcertained) to have been mortally wounded at Rexpoede.

In the retreat upon the night of the 6th, his royal highneſs Prince Adolphus and the field-marſhal were, for a ſhort time, in the poſſeſſion of the enemy. A patrole of cavalry, which ought to have been in their front, having taken another road, they went into the village of Rexpoede, through which one of the columns was to paſs, but which was then occupied by the enemy. His royal highneſs was wounded with a ſword upon the head and arm; but I have the ſatisfaction to ſay, that no bad conſequences are to be apprehended. The field-marſhal was wounded in the head, and, I am happy to add, only in the ſame degree. He has, however, been unable, ſince that time, to take the command of the army. Capt. Ouſlar, one of his royal highneſs's aides-du-camp, was killed, and another, Capt. Wangenheim, very ſeverely wounded.—From this ſituation his royal highneſs and the field-marſhal were relieved by the intrepidity and preſence of mind of Gen Walmoden, who, upon diſcovering the enemy were in poſſeſſion of Rexpoede, had immediately collected a body of troops, attacked it without heſitation, and defeated them with great ſlaughter.

It is with infinite regret I muſt add, that Col. Moncrieff has received a wound of the moſt dangerous kind. The loſs of an officer of ſpirit, activity, and genius, like his, muſt ever be ſeverely felt, and it is to be particularly lamented at the preſent moment. I have the honour to be, &c. JA. MURRAY.

Killed and wounded of the 2d Brigade of Britiſh Infantry.

14th Regiment; 1 ſerjeant, 1 corporal, 8 privates, killed; 1 captain, 1 lieutenant, 3 enſigns, 1 ſerjeant, 1 corporal, 1 drummer, 35 privates, wounded.

37th Regiment: 1 enſign killed, and 3 privates, wounded.

53d Regiment: 4 privates wounded.

Names of Officers killed and wounded.

Enſign M'Donald killed: Capt. Garnier, Lieut. M'Kenzie, Enſigns Erlington, Smith, and Williams, wounded.—— Volunteers Day and M'Grath wounded.

GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

WHITEHALL, *Sept.* 12.

The following diſpatch from Colonel Sir James Murray was received this evening.

FURNES, *Sept.* 10.

Sir, I have the honour to inform you, that in conſequence of information received this morning from Ypres, ſtating that that important place was attacked, and that it ſtood in need of immediate aſſiſtance, his royal highneſs determined to go to its relief. The troops were already marched, when intelligence was received of the enemy having fallen back to Bailleul. This retreat ſeems to have been occaſioned by a ſucceſsful attack, which was made upon the 8th by General Beaulieu, upon their poſts near Liſle.

In conſequence of this, the troops have returned to their former camp. I have the honour to be, with the greateſt reſpect, &c. JAMES MURRAY.

WHITEHALL, *Sept.* 16.

Capt. Robinſon, of the Brilliant frigate, arrived yeſterday evening at the office of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, with the following diſpatch from Colonel Sir James Murray.

Dixmude, Sept. 14, 1793.

Sir, I take the opportunity of Captain Robinſon, of the Brilliant frigate, going to England, to inform you, that the Dutch poſts upon the Lys were forced by the enemy upon the 12th. In conſequence of this, the troops of the republic have abandoned Menin, and have fallen back upon Bruges and Ghent. His royal highneſs means to march this day to Thouroute.

Accounts were received this morning that an engagement had taken place at Villers en Couchée, near Queſnoy, in which the French were defeated, with the loſs of 3000 men, and eleven pieces of cannon, and the garriſon taken.

JAMES MURRAY.

LONDON GAZETTE, *Sept.* 21.

The following diſpatch from Col. Sir James Murray, adjutant-general to his royal highneſs the Duke of York, was this afternoon received at the office of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, ſecretary of ſtate for the home department:

SIR, *Menin, Sept.* 17, 1793.

I had the honour of informing you, that, upon the retreat of the Dutch troops from Menin, his royal highneſs intended to march upon Thouroute, in order to oppoſe the further progreſs of the enemy, and to act in conjunction with General Beaulieu, who commanded a corps of Auſtrians near Courtray.

The march was executed upon the 14th. Lieutenant-general Erbach, with two battalions of Auſtrians and two of Heſſian infantry and four ſquadrons of Britiſh cavalry, under the command of Major-general Harcourt, was ordered to advance the ſame day to Rouſelaire. Upon the 15th the main body of the army advanced to Rouſelaire, and Lieutenant-general Erbach's corps to Ledeghem, it being his royal highneſs's intention to attack the enemy, and force them to repaſs the Lys. Information was received at Rouſelaire of the Prince of Cobourg's being in march towards Liſle with a great body of troops, which his ſerene highneſs had put in motion as ſoon as he had learnt that Menin was evacuated.

During the march of the army, the enemy had attacked General Beaulieu's advanced poſts; eight battalions were ſent to his ſupport: but the enemy had been repulſed before their arrival.

This appears to have been intended to cover their retreat, as they had begun to evacuate Menin early in the morning. In the courſe of the day they entirely abandoned that important poſt, which was taken poſſeſſion of in the evening by Lieutenant-general Erbach. Yeſterday the army marched again. A camp was taken near Menin, and the advanced poſts puſhed on to Werwick, which the enemy had likewiſe abandoned, ſo that by theſe movements Auſtrian Flanders has been protected, and this part of it recovered.

JAMES MURRAY.

P. S. In the action before Menin, Gen. Beaulieu loſt about 100 men in killed and wounded. The loſs of the French is between 4 and 500, beſides a great number taken priſoners.

Sir James Murray arrived in perſon at the ſecretary of ſtate's office on Saturday morning, the 21ſt, and had on that day conferences with ſuch of the miniſters as were in London. He comes over, no doubt, to conſult on the further operations of the campaign.

QUESNOY, *Sept.* 13.

The garriſon of Queſnoy, to the number of 5600 men, this morning laid down their arms, and were conducted priſoners of war towards Germany. The cavalry in the garriſon had only 50 of their horſes left alive. The place was well furniſhed with cannon and military ſtores. It has ſuffered much by the ſiege. The caſerns for the troops are entirely demoliſhed.

SURRENDER of TOULON.

GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

WHITEHALL, *Sept.* 13.

By advices from Vice-Admiral Lord Hood, commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels employed in the Mediterranean, received this evening, dated Victory, off the Iſland of Hieres, Aug. 25, 1793, it appears that an intercourſe had taken place between his lordſhip and commiſſioners from Toulon and Marſeilles: that Lord Hood had publiſhed a preliminary declaration and proclamation, and received a paper in anſwer, of which copies are ſubjoined. And by ſubſequent accounts it appears that a treaty relative to Toulon was brought to a concluſion, and that on the 28th Lord Hood's fleet landed 1500 men, and took poſſeſſion of the batteries at the mouth of the harbour. The French fleet hauled into the inner road, and on the 29th the Britiſh fleet and the fleet of Spain, which joined on the ſame day, anchored in the outer road of Toulon. Marſeilles has alſo been taken by the republican troops under General Carteaux.

PRELIMINARY DECLARATION.

If a candid and explicit Declaration in favour of monarchy is made at Toulon and Marſeilles, and the ſtandard of royalty hoiſted, the ſhips in the harbour diſmantled, and the port and forts proviſionally at my diſpoſition, ſo as to allow of the egreſs and regreſs with ſafety, the people of Provence ſhall have all the aſſiſtance and ſupport his Britannic majeſty's fleet under my command can give; and not an atom of private property of any individual ſhall be touched, but protected: having no other view than that of reſtoring peace to a great nation upon juſt, liberal, and honourable, terms. This muſt be the groundwork of the treaty.

And whenever peace takes place, which I hope and truſt will be ſoon, the port, with all the ſhips in the harbour, and forts of Toulon, ſhall be reſtored to France, with the ſtores of every kind, agreeable to the ſchedule that may be delivered.

Given on-board his Britannic Majeſty's ſhip Victory, off Toulon, this 23d of Aug.

(Signed) HOOD.

Proclamation, by the Right Hon. Samuel Lord Hood, Vice-Admiral of the Red, and Commander in Chief of his Britannic Majesty's Squadron in the Mediterranean, &c.

To the Inhabitants in the Towns and Provinces in the South of France.

During four years you have been involved in a revolution, which has plunged you in anarchy, and rendered you a prey to factious leaders. After having destroyed your government, trampled under foot the laws, assassinated the virtuous, and authorised the commission of crimes, they have endeavoured to propagate throughout Europe their destructive system of every social order. They have constantly held forth to you the idea of liberty, while they have been robbing you of it. Every where they have preached respect to persons and property, and every where in their name it has been violated; they have amused you with the sovereignty of the people, which they have constantly usurped; they have declaimed against the abuses of royalty, in order to establish their tyranny upon the fragments of a throne still reeking with the blood of your legitimate sovereign. Frenchmen! you groan under the pressure of want, and the privation of all specie; your commerce and your industry are annihilated, your agriculture is checked, and the want of provisions threatens you with a horrible famine. Behold, then, the faithful picture of your wretched condition; a situation so dreadful sensibly afflicts the coalesced powers; they see no other remedy but the re-establishment of the French monarchy. It is for this, and the acts of aggression committed by the executive powers of France, that we have armed in conjunction with the other coalesced powers. After mature reflection upon these leading objects, I come to offer you the force with which I am entrusted by my sovereign, in order to spare the further effusion of human blood, to crush with promptitude the factious, to re-establish a regular government in France, and thereby maintain peace and tranquillity in Europe. Decide, therefore, definitively, and with precision. Trust your hopes to the generosity of a *loyal* and *free* nation. In its name I have just given an unequivocal testimony to the well-disposed inhabitants of Marseilles, by granting to the commissioners sent on-board the fleet under my command a passport for procuring a quantity of grain, of which this great town now stands so much in need. Be explicit, and I fly to your succour, in order to break the chain which surrounds you, and to be the instrument of making many years of happiness succeed to four years of misery and anarchy, in which your deluded country has been involved.

Given on-board his Britannic Majesty's ship Victory, off Toulon, this 23d of Aug.

(Signed) HOOD.

By command of the Admiral,

(Signed) J. M'ARTHUR.

Declaration made to Admiral Lord Hood.

The general Committee of the Sections of Toulon, having read the Proclamation of Admiral Hood, commander in chief of his Britannic Majesty's squadron, together with his Preliminary Declaration; and, after having communicated these two papers to all the citizens of the town of Toulon, united in sections:

Considering that France is torn by anarchy, and that it is impossible to exist longer a prey to the factions with which the country is agitated without its total destruction:—

Considering that the southern departments, after having made long efforts to resist the oppression of a party of factious men, who have conspired to ruin them, find themselves drained and deprived of all resources to annihilate this coalition of the evil-disposed:—

Considering, in short, that, determined not to submit to the tyranny of a Convention that has sworn to ruin the nation, the people of Toulon, and those of Marseilles, would rather have recourse to the generosity of a loyal people, who has manifested the desire of protecting the true Frenchmen against the anarchists who wish to ruin them, declare to Admiral Hood:

1. That the unanimous wish of the inbitants of Toulon is to reject a constitution which does not promote their happiness, to adopt a monarchic government, such as it was originally by the Constituent Assemby of 1789; and, in consequence, they have proclaimed Louis XVII. son of Louis XVI. King, and have sworn to acknowledge him, and no longer suffer the despotism of the tyrants who at this time govern France.

2. That the white flag shall be hoisted the instant the English squadron anchors in the road of Toulon, and it will there meet the most friendly reception.

3. That the ships of war now in the road will be disarmed according to Admiral Hood's wishes.

4. That the citadel and the forts of the coast shall be provisionally at the disposal of the above admiral; but, for the better establishing the union which ought to exist between the two people, it is requested that the garrison shall be composed of an equal number of French and English, and that nevertheless the command shall devolve to the English.

5. The

5. The people of Toulon truſt the Engliſh nation will furniſh ſpeedily a force ſufficient to aſſiſt in repelling the attacks with which they are at this moment threatened by the army of Italy, which marches towards Toulon, and by that of General Carteaux, who directs his forces againſt Marſeilles.

6. That the people of Toulon, full of confidence in the generous offers of Admiral Hood, truſt all thoſe who held civil and military employments ſhall be continued in their places, and ſhall not be annoyed in their reſpective occupations.

7. That the ſubſiſtence and ſuccours of every kind, of which Toulon ſtands ſo much in need, will be aſſured to the inhabitants by the combined fleet of the powers coaleſced.

8. That, when peace ſhall have been reeſtabliſhed in France, the ſhips and forts which will be put into the hands of the Engliſh ſhall be reſtored to the French nation in the ſame ſtate they were in when the inventory was delivered.

It is according to this declaration, if approved by Admiral Hood, that the Touloneſe will regard themſelves, with good heart and will, as belonging to the Engliſh and the other powers coaleſced, and by whoſe ſuccour will be brought about that peace after which they have panted ſo long. (Signed)

Beaudeal (preſident), Reboul (vice-preſident), Reynaud, (ſecretary.) La RoypeVertrieux, Deydier, Cadel, Andraw, Vialis, Barthelemy, (commiſſary of the department.) Poſſel, Fournier, Grival, Bte. Devant, Antoine Gaberte, Porte, Jeffrey, (commiſſary of the municipality.) L. Cadiere, (commiſſary of the municipality.) C. Garibow, Bonilment, Ferrand, Chauſſegros, (commiſſary of the municipality.) Meifrund, (preſident of the municipality.) Bertrand, Sicard, &c.

Victory, in the Outer Road of Toulon, Aug. 29.

Sir, In my letter of the 25th I had the honour to acquaint you, for the information of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, of the ſituation of things at Toulon and Marſeilles. Since that, I came to the reſolution of landing one thouſand five hundred men, to take poſſeſſion of the forts which command the ſhips in the road. St. Julien, a turbulent hot-headed democrat, (to whom the ſeamen had given up the command of the fleet in the room of Trogoffe,) had the command of the forts on the left of the harbour, and declared reſiſtance.

In all enterprizes of war, danger, more or leſs, is to be expected, and muſt be ſubmitted to: but, impreſſed with the great importance of taking poſſeſſion of Toulon, the great fort of Malgue, and others on the main, in ſhortening the war, I fully relied, that, in caſe my endeavours ſhould not ſucceed, I ſhould be juſtified in running ſome riſque, being conſcious I acted, to the beſt of my judgment, as a faithful ſervant to my king and country; therefore, at midnight on the 27th, I made the neceſſary arrangements for putting the troops on-ſhore, as near as poſſible to the great fort, without their being moleſted by thoſe batteries in the hands of St. Julien, under the immediate protection of the Meleager and Tartar, ſupported by the Egmont, Robuſt, Courageux, and Coloſſus, which were all in the fort by noon on the 28th. And I authorized Capt. Elphinſtone to land and enter, at the head of the troops, the fort of Malgue, and to take upon him the charge and command of governor; and directed Capt. Dickſon, on his anchoring, to ſend a flag, with peremptory notice to St. Julien, that ſuch ſhips as did not immediately proceed into the inner harbour, and put their powder on-ſhore, ſhould be treated as enemies. All but ſeven, whoſe crews ran off with St. Julien, removed in the courſe of the day.

After having taken poſſeſſion of Toulon and the forts, I judged it expedient to iſſue another proclamation, which has had a very happy effect.

Lord Hugh Conway has the charge of one diſpatch, and the honourable Captain Waldegrave the other, who will be able to inform his majeſty's miniſters, at thoſe places they may paſs, of the allied powers. I have the honour to be, Sir,

Your moſt obedient humble ſervant,

Philip Stephens, Eſq. (Signed) HOOD.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *Sept.* 21.

A letter hath this day been received from Vice-Admiral Lord Hood, commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Mediterranean, to Mr. Stephen's, dated on-board the Victory, in the outer road of Toulon, the 1ſt inſtant, of which the following is an extract:

Yeſterday afternoon a party of Carteaux's army, conſiſting of 750 men, approached near Toulon. Captain Elphinſtone, whom I had appointed governor of the great fort of Malgue and its dependencies, marched out, at the head of 600 troops, and put it to the rout, took four pieces of cannon, their ammunition, horſes, two ſtands of colours, drums, &c. I moſt exceedingly lament the loſs of a very excellent officer, Major Douglas, whom I had appointed fort-major, and whoſe zeal for going out with the troops could not be reſtrained. The ball entered his breaſt, and was extracted at the ſhoulder-blade. He died laſt night.

Upon

Upon the troops leaving the fort, the appointed ſignal was made for a number of ſeamen that were kept ready, and 400 were on-ſhore immediately, to put the fort out of danger.

Rear-Admiral Goodall has taken upon him the charge and command of governor of Toulon, and Rear-Admiral Gravina that of commandant of the troops.

The ſignal is, this moment, for the convoy's being in ſight with a conſiderable body of Spaniſh troops from the army in Rouſillon. HOOD.

Return of the killed and wounded.

Britiſh. Major Douglas, of the 11th regiment, killed.—11th regiment. One ſerjeant, ſix privates, wounded.—25th regiment. Three privates wounded.—Marines. Three privates wounded.—Spaniards, Three killed; three wounded.

DOMESTIC AFFAIRS.

THE accounts brought over by Sir James Murray ſtate, that the French troops which lately occupied Menin have retreated in very great confuſion towards Liſle and Caſſel; that the Duke of York's head-quarters are now at Menin; the Prince de Saxe Cobourg's at St. Amand.

His royal highneſs Prince Adolphus, who was wounded in the action on the 6th, arrived ſafely at Deal on Thurſday morning, the 12th, from whence he immediately ſet out for town. He had the hat on through the back part of which he had received a cut. One of his eyes is ſtill black with a blow he received, and his coat is alſo cut through. His own Hanoverian regiment went into action one thouſand ſtrong; and, according to information which we have received, and which we fear will prove too true, came out with ſixty-three and one enſign.

When Captain Garnier, of the 14th regiment, was wounded in the breaſt by a muſquet-ball on the 7th inſt. near Dunkirk, he was caught in the arms of a ſerjeant belonging to his company; in a few minutes after he had the mortification of ſeeing his truſty and gallant ſupporter cut in two by a cannon-ball.

A moſt extraordinary circumſtance attended the death of Col. Eld. The picture of a lady hung to his breaſt; the ball ſtruck the picture, and carried it to his heart; where both ball and picture were found afterwards by the ſurgeon.—What a ſubject, this, for a poet to work upon!

Arrived from Newfoundland, on the 7th inſt. the Shark ſloop, Captain Barker, who, immediately on landing, ſet out for the admiralty, with the following intelligence.—On the firſt of Auguſt, as the Boſton frigate was going into Sandy Hook, a French officer, miſtaking her for a ſhip belonging to his nation, went on-board to pilot her in, and was kept priſoner; at the ſame time a formal challenge was ſent from the Hon. Captain Courtney, to the commander of the Ambuſcade, to come out and fairly try their ſtrength. This being inſtantly acceded to, they entered into action within piſtol-ſhot, and fought two hours and five minutes cloſe in the Hook, when the Boſton's main top-maſt being ſhot away, her ſails and rigging ſhattered to pieces, and many of her hands killed or wounded, ſhe was under the neceſſity of making off. The Ambuſcade, having alſo ſuffered ſeverely, was unable to take advantage of the Engliſh frigate, and made no efforts to follow her. About an hour after the action commenced, a cannon-ſhot carried off Captain Courtney, and Lieutenant Butler of the marines. The Boſton mounts 32 twelve and nine pounders, and her full complement 260 hands; the Ambuſcade had 44 eighteen and twelve pounders, with upwards of 300 men. To add to the diſparity, the Boſton had an officer and 11 ſeamen on-board a ſchooner ſhe had taken, and was likewiſe ſhort of her complement.

Letters from Paris, dated Sept. 2, inform us, that the trial of Cuſtine was concluded on the 27th ult. late in the evening. The jury found him guilty of betraying Frankfort, Mentz, Condé, and Valenciennes, into the hands of the Engliſh. He was brought to the place of execution on the morning of the 28th, where he ſhewed neither the calm reſignation of conſcious innocence, nor the indignant firmneſs that men of proud ſpirits, who have no ſuch conſolation, ſubſtitute for it. He kiſſed the crucifix, embraced his confeſſor, heſitated, uſed every artifice to gain a few minutes longer time, and, at laſt, was brought to the guillotine by force.

Dr. Horſley, Biſhop of St. David's, is tranſlated to the ſee of Rocheſter, with the deanery of Weſtminſter.

Bon Mot.—When a ſoldier about a month ago fell into the Thames, one perſon aſked another what regiment he belonged to, and was anſwered, "The life guards."—"Nay, my good ſir," ſaid he, "there I think you muſt be miſtaken—for he is certainly in the *Cold Stream*."

LIST

LIST of PRIZES, continued from Page 128.

THE Tortola, Gerace, from Vera Cruz and Havannah to Cadiz, captured by the Amiable Adelaide, is retaken by the Brilliantof Guernſey, and carried in there; the French had taken out 4000 dollars.

Arrived from the coaſt of Guinea, the Orpheus frigate, Captain Newcomb, who has captured ſix large French ſhips with ſlaves, full laden, beſides ſeveral ſmall veſſels with valuable cargoes on-board. The ſlave-ſhips are ſent to the Weſt Indies.

The Reſolution privateer, of Weymouth, has brought in a prize, a ſchooner, from America, bound to France, loaded with elephants teeth and hides.

The Fanny, letter of marque, belonging to Liverpool, has taken, and carried into Beaumaris, two outward-bound French ſhips, of 300 tons burthen, laden with ſtores, &c.

The Swift letter of marque, belonging to Briſtol, has taken four French ſhips on the coaſt of Africa.—The General Orde letter of marque alſo captured a prize worth 20,000l. and carried her ſafe into Bence Iſland.

The Leopard man of war has captured La Conſtitution, ——, from China to l'Orient, and is arrived off Portſmouth.

The Thetis frigate has captured the Montgof, George, from India to France, and is arrived off Scilly.

The Ann and Margaret, ——, from Riga, is retaken by the Minerva, Williams, and arrived at Liverpool.

The Philippina letter of marque, belonging to Guernſey, has taken and carried into that place two French privateers, after a chace of ſix hours and a half.

Brought into the harbour of Greenock, prize to the Prince of Wales privateer, a ſhip called the Canada, of London, Alexander Muirhead, maſter, of the burthen of about 220 tons, from Canton, in China, laſt from the South Seas.

Capt. Robert M'Kinlay of Greenock, now in the iſland of Antigua, has gained there, by privateers fitted out by himſelf, prizes to the amount of 19,000l. ſterling.

The Loyal Ann privateer has ſent in an American veſſel to Falmouth, laden with ſugar, coffee, and cotton, from New York, bound to Bourdeaux.

The Experiment lugger, of 10 guns, Lieut. Hayes commander, has captured a French Eaſt-Indiaman, homeward-bound, valued at 200,000l. after an action of three hours, in which the lugger had three men killed and four wounded.

Advices have been received at the admiralty of the capture of three or four Spaniſh frigates, which were cruiſing off the French coaſt in the Mediterranean.

The Squirrel man of war, commanded by Captain Drury, juſt arrived at Cork, from running down the coaſt of Africa, having received information of two rich French ſhips that had taken ſhelter under the fort of Prince's Iſland, ran down there and captured them both, viz. a ſhip and a brig.—The Portugueze governor would not permit the prizes to come away, and fired upon the Squirrel, which ſhe returned, but was obliged to retreat and leave her prizes.

The Pluto ſhip of war has captured a French packet, of 16 guns and 100 men, from Martinique to France, and carried her to St. John's, Newfoundland.

The Hope, Roſcow, of London, has captured in Bamy river La Jeune Eulalia, with 140 ſlaves, and part of her cargo on board.

The Siſters, Provoſt, from New York to Havre, is taken by the Col. Gaſcoyne privateer of Liverpool.

The Brothers, Williams, letter of marque, of Briſtol, was ſpoke with on the 2d of July off St. Thomas's, and had taken three prizes.

The Tartar ſloop of war has taken and carried into Scilly, two French merchant-ſhips from St. Domingo, for Nantes, laden with ſugar, cotton, &c.

The Daphne privateer of Guernſey, Capt. Patrick Hervey, has ſent into Fowey the ſhip Handeſmann, Andreas Chriſtian Harboe maſter, bound from Havre-de-Grace to St. Thomas's.

The Charming Molly, of Guernſey alſo, has captured and ſent into Mevagiſſey, near Falmouth, a ſmall French advice-boat, called La Hally, bound from St. Lucia to Nantes, with diſpatches.

The William letter of marque, Captain Scott, belonging to Briſtol, has taken and carried into King's Road, the Juliana French merchant-ſhip, from Bourdeaux, laden with wine, &c. after a chace of four hours.

A French ſhip laden with oil, &c. from the South-Sea Fiſhery, or Coaſt of Brazil, has been taken by the Buſtler privateer.

Ships taken by the French.

The Fairy, Surprize, and Dolphin, privateers, of Jerſey, are taken by the French, and carried into Breſt.—The Diſpatch, Shepherd, from Charleſtown to Briſtol, was taken by a French privateer the 7th inſt. off Scilly, and is carried into Breſt.—The Mary, Capt. Willis, of Greenock, homeward-bound Jamaica-man, was taken and ſent into Philadelphia by the Ambuſcade frigate, early in July laſt.—The Flora of Glaſgow, bound to Jamaica, was taken by Le Sans Culotte privateer of Marſeilles.

BRAVERY OF A MESSENIAN WARRIOR.

MESSENIA is a country famous in hiſtory, on account of the reſiſtance made againſt the Spartans by their leader Ariſtomenes, who was a man of unconquerable valour, and enthuſiaſtically fond of liberty. He perceived that the Argives and Arcadians, who were called the allies of the Lacædemonians, adhered to them only through fear of their power; but that in reality they hated them, and wiſhed to revenge the injuries they had done them. To theſe Ariſtomenes applied; and, receiving an anſwer conformable to his wiſhes, he engaged his countrymen unanimouſly to take up arms. About a year after a revolt began, and, before either party had received any auxiliaries, the Spartans and Meſſenians met at a village called Deræ, where an obſtinate engagement enſued. Ariſtomenes was conceived to have performed more than mortal atchievements: in gratitude therefore, reſpect being alſo had to his royal deſcent, his countrymen unanimouſly ſaluted him king; which title he modeſtly waved, alledging, that he took up arms to ſet them free, and not to make himſelf great: he conſented, however, to accept the title of general, with a power of doing whatſoever he thought requiſite for the ſervice of the public.

In the third year of the war, the Spartans with a great force entered Meſſenia, whither Ariſtocrates king of Arcadia was come, with a great body of troops, to the aſſiſtance of his allies: Ariſtomenes therefore made no difficulty of fighting when the Spartans approached; but they, entering privately into a negociation with Ariſtocrates, engaged him with bribes and promiſes to betray his confederates. When the battle began, the deceitful Arcadian repreſented to the forces under his command the mighty danger they were in, and the great difficulty there would be of retreating into their own country, in caſe the battle ſhould be loſt: he then pretended that the ſacrifices were ominous; and, having terrified his Arcadians into the diſpoſition of mind fitteſt to ſerve his purpoſe, he not only drew them off from both wings, but, in his flight, forced through the Meſſenian ranks, and put them into confuſion. Ariſtomenes and his troops, however, drew themſelves into cloſe order, that they might defend themſelves the beſt they could; and indeed they had need of all their valour and ſkill; for the Lacedæmonians, who knew of this event, immediately attacked and ſurrounded them on all ſides. Fortune was, on this occaſion, too powerful either for the courage or the conduct of the Meſſenians; ſo that, notwithſtanding their utmoſt efforts, moſt of their army were cut to pieces, and amongſt them the chief of their nobility. Ariſtomenes, with the poor remains of his ſhattered forces, retired as well as he could; and, perceiving that it was now impoſſible to maintain the war againſt the Lacedæmonians upon equal terms, he exhorted his countrymen to fortify mount Era, and to make the beſt diſpoſitions poſſible for a long defence. He likewiſe placed garriſons in Pylus and Methone on the ſea-coaſts; and to theſe three places he gathered all the inhabitants, leaving the reſt of Meſſenia to the mercy of the Spartans. They, on the other hand, looked on the war as now in a manner finiſhed; for which reaſon they divided the lands among their citizens, and cauſed them to be carefully cultivated, while they beſieged Era. But Ariſtomenes quickly convinced them that the war was far from being over: he choſe out of all the Meſſenians three hundred men, with whom he ravaged all the adjacent country; carried off a prodigious booty; and, when Meſſenia could no longer ſupply the wants of his garriſon, penetrated into Laconia, and bore away corn, wine, cattle, and whatever elſe was neceſſary to the ſubſiſtence of his countrymen ſhut up in Era: ſo that at laſt the Spartans were conſtrained to iſſue a proclamation, forbidding the cultivation, not only of the Meſſenian territory in their hands, but alſo of Laconia and its vicinity; whereby they diſtreſſed themſelves more than their enemies, inducing at laſt a famine in Sparta itſelf, which brought with it its uſual attendant, ſedition. Here all things had

had gone wrong, if the poet Tyrtæus had not ſupported the Spartan courage; nor was it without much difficulty that he influenced them to continue the blockade of Era, and to maintain a flying camp for the ſecurity of the country.

Ariſtomenes, in ſpite of all theſe precautions, committed terrible depredations with his ſmall corps of three hundred men. Amongſt other places which he plundered, the city of Amyclæ was one; from whence he carried not only a great quantity of riches, but alſo many carriages laden with proviſions. The kings of Sparta, lying with their troops in its neighbourhood, as ſoon as they heard of this expedition, marched after Ariſtomenes with the utmoſt diligence; and, as the Meſſenians were encumbered with their booty, came up with them before they could reach Era. In this ſituation of things, Ariſtomenes, prompted rather by deſpair than prudence, diſpoſed his troops in order of battle; and, notwithſtanding they were ſo few, made a long and vigorous reſiſtance againſt the whole Lacedæmonian army. At length, however, numbers prevailed: the greateſt part of the Meſſenians were ſlain on the ſpot; and Ariſtomenes, with about fifty of his men who ſurvived the ſlaughter, were taken priſoners; that chief having received ſo many wounds, that he was ſenſeleſs when they carried him away. The Lacedæmonians expreſſed the loudeſt joy at the ſight of this illuſtrious captive; who, for ſo many years, by his ſingle abilities, had enabled his exhauſted country to defend itſelf againſt the whole force of Sparta. When he was recovered of his wounds, they decreed him and all his fellow-priſoners to be thrown together into a deep cavern, which was the common puniſhment of the loweſt kind of offenders. This judgment was executed with the utmoſt ſeverity, excepting that Ariſtomenes had leave to put on his armour. Three days he continued in this diſmal place, lying upon and covered over with dead bodies. The third day, he was almoſt famiſhed through want of food, and almoſt poiſoned with the ſtench of corrupted carcaſes, when he heard a fox gnawing a body near him. Upon this he uncovered his face, and, perceiving the fox juſt by him, he with one hand ſeized one of its hind legs, and with the other defended his face, by catching hold of its jaw when it attempted to bite him. Following as well as he could his ſtraggling guide, the fox at laſt thruſt his head into a little hole, and, Ariſtomenes then letting go its leg, ſoon forced his way through, and opened a paſſage to the welcome rays of light, from which the noble Meſſenian had been ſo long debarred. Feeble as he was, Ariſtomenes wrought himſelf an outlet with his nails; and, travelling by night with all the expedition he could, at length arrived ſafe at Era, to the great joy and amazement of his countrymen. When this news was firſt blazed abroad, the Spartans would have had it paſs for a fiction; but Ariſtomenes ſoon put the truth of it out of doubt, by falling on the poſts of the Corinthians, who, as allies of the Spartans, had a conſiderable body of troops before Era. Moſt of their officers, with a multitude of private men, he ſlew; pillaged their camp; and, in ſhort did ſo much miſchief, that the Spartans, under the pretence of an approaching feſtival, agreed to a ceſſation of arms for forty days, that they might have time to bury their dead. On this occaſion, Ariſtomenes for the ſecond time celebrated the *hecatomphonia*, or the ſacrifice appointed for thoſe who had killed one hundred of the enemy with their own hands. He had performed the ſame before and after his ſecond battle; and he lived to do it a third time; which muſt appear wonderful to the reader, when he is informed, that, notwithſtanding this truce, certain Cretan archers in the ſervice of the Spartans ſeized Ariſtomenes as he was walking without the walls, and carried him away a priſoner. There were nine of them in all; two of them immediately flew with the news to Sparta, and ſeven remained to guard their prize, whom they bound and conducted to a lone cottage inhabited only by a widow and her daughter. It ſo fell out, that the young woman dreamt the night before, that ſhe ſaw a lion without claws, bound, and dragged along by wolves; and that ſhe having looſed his bands, and given him claws, he immediately tore the wolves to pieces. As ſoon as Ariſtomenes came into the cottage, and her

mother,

mother, who knew him, had told her who he was, ſhe inſtantly concluded that her dream was fulfilled; and therefore plied the Cretans with drink, and, when they were aſleep, took a poignard from one of them, cut the thongs with which Ariſtomenes was bound, and then put it into his hands. He preſently verified her viſion, by putting all his guards to death; and then carried her and her mother to Era, where, as a reward for her ſervice, he married the young woman to his ſon Gorcus, then about eighteen years of age.

When Era had thus held out near eleven years, it fell into the hands of Sparta by an accident: the ſervant of one Empiramus, a Spartan commander, driving his maſter's cattle to drink at the river Neda, met frequently with the wife of a Meſſenian, whom he engaged in an amour. This woman gave him notice, that her huſband's houſe was without the wall; ſo that he could come to it without danger, when the good man was abroad; and ſhe likewiſe gave him intelligence when her huſband was upon duty in the garriſon. The Spartan failed not to come at the time appointed; but they had not been long in bed before the huſband returned, which put the houſe into great confuſion: the woman, however, ſecured her gallant; and then let in her huſband, whom ſhe received in appearance with great joy, inquiring again and again by what exceſs of good fortune ſhe was bleſſed with his return. The innocent Meſſenian told her, that, Ariſtomenes being detained in his bed by a wound, the ſoldiers, knowing that he could not walk the rounds, had a grant to retire to their houſes, to avoid the inclemency of the ſeaſon. The Spartan no ſooner heard this, than he crept ſoftly out of doors, and haſtened away to carry the news to his maſter. It ſo happened, that the kings were at this time abſent from the camp, and Empiramus had the chief command of the army. As ſoon as he received this information, he ordered his army to begin its march, though it rained exceſſively, and there was no moon-light. The fellow guided them to the ford, and managed matters ſo well that they ſeized all the Meſſenian poſts: yet, after all, they were afraid to engage; darkneſs, an high wind, heavy rain, together with the dread of Ariſtomenes, keeping them quiet in the places they had ſeized. As ſoon as it was light, the attack began; and Era had been quickly taken, if only the men had defended it; but the women fought with ſuch fury, and by their mingling in the fray brought ſuch an acceſſion of numbers, as made the event doubtful. Three days and two nights this deſperate engagement laſted: at laſt, all hopes of preſerving the city being loſt, Ariſtomenes drew off his wearied troops. Early the fourth morning he diſpoſed the women and children in the centre, the Meſſenian youth in the front and rear, the leſs able men in the main body: himſelf commanded the van; the rear-guard was brought up by Gorcus and Manticlus, the former the ſon of Ariſtomenes, the latter of Theocles, a Meſſenian of great merit, who fell with much glory in this attack, fighting valiantly in the cauſe of his country. When all things were ready, Ariſtomenes cauſed the laſt barrier to be thrown open; and, brandiſhing his ſpear, marched directly towards the Spartan troops, in order to force a paſſage. Empiramus, perceiving his intent, ordered his men to open to the right and left, and fairly gave them a paſſage; ſo that Ariſtomenes marched off in triumph, with all his garriſon, through the boſom of his enemies.

ESSAY ON THE MIGRATION OF BIRDS.

IT has been generally believed, that many different kinds of birds annually paſs from one country to another, and ſpend the ſummer or the winter where it is moſt agreeable to them; and that even the birds of our own iſland will ſeek the moſt diſtant ſouthern regions of Africa, when directed by a peculiar inſtinct to leave their own country. It has long been an opinion pretty generally received, that ſwallows reſide during the winter-ſeaſon in the warm ſouthern regions; and M. Adanſon particularly relates his having ſeen them at Senegal when they were obliged to leave this country. But, beſides the

ſwallow, Mr. Pennant enumerates many other birds which migrate from Britain at different times of the year, and are then to be found in other countries; after which they again leave theſe countries, and return to Britain. The reaſon of theſe migrations he ſuppoſes to be a defect of food at certain ſeaſons of the year, or the want of a ſecure aſylum from the perſecution of man during the time of courtſhip, incubation, and nutrition. The following is a liſt of the migrating ſpecies:

1. Crows. Of this genus, the hooded crow migrates regularly with the woodcock. It inhabits North Britain the whole year: a few are ſaid annually to breed on Dartmoor, in Devonſhire. It breeds alſo in Sweden and Auſtria: in ſome of the Swediſh provinces it only ſhifts its quarters, in others it reſides throughout the year. We are at a loſs for the ſummer retreat of thoſe which viſit us in ſuch numbers in winter, and quit our country in the ſpring; and for the reaſon why a bird, whoſe food is ſuch that it may be found at all ſeaſons in this country, ſhould leave us.

2. Cuckoo. Diſappears early in autumn; the retreat of this and the following bird is quite unknown to us.

3. Wryneck. Is a bird that leaves us in the winter. If its diet be ants alone, as ſeveral aſſert, the cauſe of its migration is very evident. This bird diſappears before winter, and reviſits us in the ſpring, a little earlier than the cuckoo.

4. Hoopoe. Comes to England but by accident: Mr. Pennant once indeed heard of a pair that attempted to make their neſt in a meadow at Selborne, Hampſhire, but were frighted away by the curioſity of the people. It breeds in Germany.

5. Grous. The whole tribe, except the quail, lives here all the year round: that bird either leaves us, or elſe retires towards the ſea-coaſts.

6. Pigeons. Some few of the ring-doves breed here; but the multitude that appears in the winter is ſo diſproportioned to what continue here the whole year, as to make it certain that the greateſt part quit the country in the ſpring. It is moſt probable they go to Sweden to breed, and return from thence in autumn; as Mr. Ekmark informs us they entirely quit that country before winter. Multitudes of the common wild pigeons alſo make the northern retreat, and viſit us in winter; not but numbers breed in the high cliffs in all parts of this iſland. The turtle alſo probably leaves us in the winter, at leaſt changes its place, removing to the ſouthern counties.

7. Stare. Breeds here. Poſſibly ſeveral remove to other countries for that purpoſe, ſince the produce of thoſe that continue here ſeems unequal to the clouds of them that appear in winter. It is not unlikely that many migrate into Sweden, where Mr. Berger obſerves they return in ſpring.

8. Thruſhes. The fieldfare and the redwing breed and paſs their ſummers in Norway and other cold countries; their food is berries, which, abounding in our kingdoms, tempts them here in the winter. Theſe two and the Royſton crow are the only land-birds that regularly and conſtantly migrate into England, and do not breed here. The hawfinch and croſsbill come here at ſuch uncertain times as not to deſerve the names of birds of paſſage.

9. Chatterer. The chatterer appears annually about Edinburgh in flocks during winter; and feeds on the berries of the mountain-aſh. In South Britain it is an accidental viſitant.

10. Groſbeaks. The groſbeak and croſsbill come here but ſeldom; they breed in Auſtria. The pine groſbeak probably breeds in the foreſts of the Highlands of Scotland.

11. Buntings. All the genus inhabits England throughout the year; except the greater brambling, which is forced here from the north in very ſevere ſeaſons.

12. Finches. All continue in ſome parts of theſe kingdoms, except the fiſkin, which is an irregular viſitant, ſaid to come from Ruſſia. The linnets ſhift their quarters, breeding in one part of this iſland, and remove with their young to another. All finches feed on the ſeeds of plants.

13. Larks, fly-catchers, wagtails, and warblers. All of theſe feed on inſects and worms; yet only part of them quit theſe kingdoms; though the reaſon of migration is the ſame to all. The nightingale, black-cap, fly-catcher, willow-

willow-wren, wheat-ear, and white-throat, leave us before winter, while the ſmall and delicate golden-creſted wren braves our ſevereſt froſts. The migrants of this genus continue longeſt in Great Britain in the ſouthern counties, the winter in thoſe parts being later than in thoſe of the north; Mr. Stillingfleet having obſerved ſeveral wheat-ears in the iſle of Purbeck on the 18th of November. As theſe birds are incapable of very diſtant flights, Spain, or the ſouth of France, is probably their winter-aſylum.

14. Swallows and goat-ſucker. Every ſpecies diſappears at the approach of winter.

WATER-FOWL.

Of the vaſt variety of water-fowl that frequent Great Britain, it is amazing to reflect how few are known to breed here: the cauſe that principally urges them to leave this country, ſeems not to be merely the want of food, but the deſire of a ſecure retreat. Our country is too populous for birds ſo ſhy and timid as the bulk of theſe are: when great part of our iſland was a mere waſte, a tract of woods and fen, doubtleſs many ſpecies of birds which at this time migrate remained in ſecurity throughout the year.—Egrets, a ſpecies of heron now ſcarcely known in this iſland, were in former times in prodigious plenty; and the crane, that has totally forſaken this country, bred familiarly in our marſhes; their place of incubation, as well as of all other cloven-footed water-fowl (the heron excepted), being on the ground, and expoſed to every one. As rural economy increaſed in this country, theſe animals were more and more diſturbed; at length, by a ſeries of alarms, they were neceſſitated to ſeek, during the ſummer, ſome lonely ſafe habitation.

On the contrary, thoſe that build or lay in the almoſt inacceſſible rocks that impend over the Britiſh ſeas, breed there ſtill in vaſt numbers, having little to fear from the approach of mankind; the only diſturbance they meet with in general being from the deſperate attempts of ſome few to get their eggs.

CLOVEN-FOOTED WATER-FOWL.

15. Herons. The white heron is an uncommon bird, and viſits us at uncertain ſeaſons; the common kind and the bittern never leave us.

16. Curlews. The curlew breeds ſometimes on our mountains; but, conſidering the vaſt flights that appear in winter, it is probable that the greater part retire to other countries: the whimbrel breeds on the Grampian hills, in the neighbourhood of Invercauld.

17. Snipes. The woodcock breeds in the moiſt woods of Sweden, and other cold countries. Some ſnipes breed here, but the greateſt part retire elſewhere; as do every other ſpecies of this genus.

18. Sandpipers. The lapwing continues here the whole year; the ruff breeds here, but retires in winter; the redſhank and ſandpiper breed in this country, and reſide here. All the others abſent themſelves during ſummer

19. Plovers and oyſter-catcher. The long-legged plover and ſanderling viſit us only in winter; the dottrel appears in ſpring and in autumn; yet, what is ſingular, we do not find it breeds in South Britain. The oyſter-catcher lives with us the whole year. The Norfolk plover and ſea-lark breed in England. The green plover breeds on the mountains of the north of England, and on the Grampian hills.

We muſt here remark, that every ſpecies of the genera of curlews, woodcocks, ſandpipers, and plovers, that forſake us in the ſpring, retire to Sweden, Poland, Pruſſia, Norway, and Lapland, to breed; as ſoon as the young can fly, they return to us again, becauſe the froſts which ſet in early in thoſe countries totally deprive them of the means of ſubſiſting; as the drineſs and hardneſs of the ground, in general, during our ſummer, prevent them from penetrating the earth with their bills, in ſearch of worms, which are the natural food of theſe birds. Mr. Ekmark ſpeaks thus of the retreat of the whole tribe of cloven-footed water-fowl out of his country (Sweden) at the approach of winter; and Mr. Klein gives much the ſame account of thoſe of Poland and Pruſſia.

20. Rails and gallinules. Every ſpecies of theſe two genera continue with us the whole year; the land-rail excepted, which is not ſeen here in winter. It likewiſe continues in Ireland only during the ſummer-months, when

when they are very numerous. Great numbers appear in Angleſea the latter end of May; it is ſuppoſed that they paſs over from Ireland, the paſſage between the two iſlands being but ſmall. As we have inſtances of theſe birds lighting on ſhips in the channel and the bay of Biſcay, we may conjecture their winter-quarters to be in Spain.

FINNED-FOOTED WATER-BIRDS.

21. Phalaropes. Theſe viſit us but ſeldom; their breeding-place is Lapland, and other arctic regions.

22. Grebes. The great-creſted grebe, the black-and-white grebe, and the little grebe, breed with us, and never migrate; the others viſit us accidentally, and breed in Lapland.

WEB-FOOTED BIRDS.

23. Avoſet. Breed near Foſſdike in Lincolnſhire; but quit their quarters in winter. They are then ſhot in different parts of the kingdom, which they viſit, not regularly, but accidentally.

24. Auks and guillemots. The great auk or pinguin ſometimes breeds in St. Kilda. The auk, the guillemot, and puffin, inhabit moſt of the maritime cliffs of Great Britain, in amazing numbers, during ſummer. The black guillemot breeds in the Baſs Iſle, and in St. Kilda, and ſometimes in Llandidno rocks. We are at a loſs for the breeding place of the other ſpecies; neither can we be very certain of the winter-reſidence of any of them, excepting of the ſmaller guillemot and black-billed auk, which, during winter, viſit in vaſt flocks the Frith of Forth.

25. Divers. Theſe chiefly breed in the lakes of Sweden and Lapland, and in ſome countries near the pole; but ſome of the red-throated divers, the northern and the imber, may breed in the north of Scotland and its iſles.

26. Terns. Every ſpecies breeds here; but leaves us in the winter.

27. Petrels. The fulmer breeds in the iſle of St. Kilda, and continues there the whole year except September and part of October: the ſhearwater viſits the iſle of Man in April; breeds there; and, leaving it in Auguſt or the beginning of September, diſperſes over all parts of the Atlantic ocean. The ſtorm-finch is ſeen at all diſtances from the land on the ſame vaſt watery tract; nor is it ever found near the ſhore, except by ſome very rare accident, unleſs in the breeding ſeaſon. Mr. Pennant found it on ſome little rocky iſles off the north of Skie. It alſo breeds in St. Kilda. He alſo ſuſpects that it neſtles on the Blaſquet Iſles off Kerry, and that it is the gourder of Mr. Smith.

28. Merganſers. This whole genus is mentioned among the birds that fill the Lapland lakes during ſummer. Mr. Pennant has ſeen the young of the red-breaſted in the north of Scotland: a few of theſe, and perhaps of the gooſeanders, may breed there.

29. Ducks. Of the numerous ſpecies that form this genus, we know of few that breed here: the ſwan and gooſe, the ſhield-duck, the eider-duck, a few ſhovelers, garganies, and teals, and a very ſmall portion of the wild-ducks. The reſt contribute to form that amazing multitude of water-fowl that annually repair from moſt parts of Europe to the woods and lakes of Lapland and other arctic regions, there to perform the functions of incubation and nutrition in full ſecurity. They and their young quit their retreat in September, and diſperſe themſelves over Europe. With us they make their appearance the beginning of October; circulate firſt round our ſhores; and, when compelled by ſevere froſt, betake themſelves to our lakes and rivers. Of the web-footed fowl there are ſome of hardier conſtitutions than others: theſe endure the ordinary winters of the more northern countries; but, when the cold reigns there with more than common rigour, they repair for ſhelter to theſe kingdoms: this regulates the appearance of ſome of the diver kind, as alſo of the wild ſwans, the ſwallow-tailed ſhield-duck, and the different ſorts of gooſeanders, which then viſit our coaſts. Barentz found the barnacles with their neſts in great numbers in Nova Zembla. Cluſius, in his Exot. 368. alſo obſerves, that the Dutch diſcovered them on the rocks of that country and in Wygate Straits. They, as well as the other ſpecies of wild-geeſe, go very far north to breed, as appears from the hiſtories of Greenland and Spitzbergen, by Egede and Crantz. Theſe birds ſeem to make Iceland a reſting-place, as Horrebow obſerves: few continue there to breed,

breed, but only viſit that iſland in the ſpring, and, after a ſhort ſtay, retire ſtill further north.

30. Corvorants. The corvorant and ſhag breed on moſt of our high rocks: the gannet in ſome of the Scotch iſles, and on the coaſt of Kerry: the two firſt continue on our ſhores the whole year. The gannet diſperſes itſelf all round the ſeas of Great Britain in purſuit of the herring and pilchard, and even as far as the Tagus to prey on the ſardina.

But, of the numerous ſpecies of fowl here enumerated, it may be obſerved how very few entruſt themſelves to us in the breeding ſeaſon, and what a diſtant flight they make to perform the firſt great dictate of nature.

There ſeems to be ſcarcely any but what we have traced to Lapland, a country of lakes, rivers, ſwamps, and alps, covered with thick gloomy foreſts, that afford ſhelter during ſummer to theſe fowls, which in winter diſperſe over the greateſt part of Europe. In thoſe arctic regions, by reaſon of the thickneſs of the woods, the ground remains moiſt and penetrable to the woodcocks, and other ſlender-billed fowl: and, for the web-footed birds, the waters afford larvæ innumerable of the tormenting gnat. The days there are long; and the beautiful meteorous nights indulge them with every opportunity of collecting ſo minute a food; whilſt mankind is very ſparingly ſcattered over that vaſt northern waſte.

Here we ſhall give a ſhort abſtract of the arguments uſed by the Hon. Daines Barrington againſt the migration of birds in general, from a paper publiſhed by him in the ſixty-ſecond volume of the Philoſophical Tranſactions. This gentleman denies that any well-atteſted inſtances can be produced of this ſuppoſed migration; which, he thinks, if there were any ſuch periodical flight, could not poſſibly have eſcaped the frequent obſervation of ſeamen. It has indeed been aſſerted, that birds of paſſage become inviſible in their flight, becauſe they riſe too high in the air to be perceived, and becauſe they chooſe the night for their paſſage. The author, however, expreſſes his doubts "whether any bird was ever ſeen to riſe to a greater height than perhaps twice that of St. Paul's croſs;" and he further endeavours to ſhew, that the extent of ſome of theſe ſuppoſed migrations (from the northern parts of Europe, for inſtance, to the line) is too great to be accounted for by having recourſe to the argument founded on a nocturnal paſſage.

The author next recites, in a chronological order, all the inſtances that he has been able to collect, of birds having been actually ſeen by mariners when they were croſſing a large extent of ſea; and he endeavours to ſhew that no ſtreſs can be laid on the few caſual obſervations of this kind that have been produced in ſupport of the doctrine of a regular and periodical migration.

Mr. Barrington afterwards proceeds to invalidate M. Adanſon's celebrated obſervation with reſpect to the migration of the ſwallow in particular, and which has been conſidered by many as perfectly deciſive of the preſent queſtion. He endeavours to ſhew, that the four ſwallows which that naturaliſt caught, on their ſettling upon his ſhip, on the 6th of October, at about the diſtance of fifty leagues from the coaſt of Senegal, and which he ſuppoſes to have been then proceeding from Europe to paſs the winter in Africa, could not be true European ſwallows; or, if they were, could not have been on their return from Europe to Africa. His objections are founded principally on ſome proofs which he produces of M. Adanſon's want of accuracy on this ſubject, which has led him, in the preſent inſtance, to miſtake two African ſpecies of the ſwallow-tribe, deſcribed and engraved by Briſſon, for European ſwallows, to which they bear a general reſemblance; or, granting even that they were European ſwallows, he contends, that they were flitting from the Cape de Verd iſlands to the coaſt of Africa; "to which ſhort flight, however, they were unequal, and accordingly fell into the ſailor's hands." We ſhall here only add, in oppoſition to the remarks of Mr. Barrington, the following obſervations of the late Rev. Mr. White, of Selborne, Hants, in a letter to Mr. Pennant on this ſubject.

"We muſt not (ſays he) deny migration in general; becauſe migration certainly does ſubſiſt in ſome places, as my brother in Andaluſia has fully informed

informed me. Of the motions of these birds he has ocular demonstration, for many weeks together, both spring and fall: during which periods myriads of the swallow kind traverse the Straits from north to south, and from south to north, according to the season of the year. And these vast migrations consist not only of hirundines, but of bee-birds, hoopoes, oro pendolos or golden thrushes, &c. &c. and also of many of our soft-billed summer birds of passage; and moreover of birds which never leave us, such as all the various sorts of hawks and kites. Old Belon, two hundred years ago, gives a curious account of the incredible armies of hawks and kites which he saw in the spring-time traversing the Thracian Bosphorus from Asia to Europe. Besides the above-mentioned, he remarks, that the procession is swelled by whole troops of eagles and vultures.

"Now it is no wonder that birds residing in Africa should retreat before the sun as it advances, and retire to milder regions, and especially birds of prey, whose blood being heated with hot animal food, are more impatient of a sultry climate: but then I cannot help wondering why kites and hawks, and such hardy birds as are known to defy all the severity of England, and even of Sweden and all north Europe, should want to migrate from the south of Europe, and be dissatisfied with the winters of Andalusia.

"It does not appear to me that much stress may be laid on the difficulty and hazard that birds must run in their migrations, by reason of vast oceans, cross winds, &c. because, if we reflect, a bird may travel from England to the equator without launching out and exposing itself to boundless seas, and that by crossing the water at Dover and again at Gibraltar. And I with the more confidence advance this obvious remark, because my brother has always found that some of his birds, and particularly the swallow kind, are very sparing of their pains in crossing the Mediterranean: for, when arrived at Gibraltar, they scout and hurry along in little detached parties of six or seven in a company; and, sweeping low, just over the surface of the land and water, direct their course to the opposite continent at the narrowest passage they can find. They usually slope across the bay to the south-west, and so pass over opposite to Tangier, which it seems is the narrowest space.

"In former letters we have considered whether it was probable that woodcocks in moon-shiny nights cross the German ocean from Scandinavia. As a proof that birds of less speed may pass that sea, considerable as it is, I shall relate the following incident, which, though mentioned to have happened so many years ago, was strictly matter of fact:—As some people were shooting in the parish of Trotton, in the county of Sussex, they killed a duck in that dreadful winter 1708-9, with a silver collar about its neck, on which were engraved the arms of the King of Denmark. This anecdote the rector of Trotton at that time has often told to a near relation of mine; and, to the best of my remembrance, the collar was in the possession of the rector.

"At present I do not know any body near the sea-side that will take the trouble to remark at what time of the moon woodcocks first come. One thing I used to observe when I was a sportsman, that there were times in which woodcocks were so sluggish and sleepy, that they would drop again when flushed just before the spaniels, nay just at the muzzle of a gun that had been fired at them: whether this strange laziness was the effect of a recent fatiguing journey, I shall not presume to say.

"Nightingales not only never reach Northumberland and Scotland, but also, as I have been always told, Devonshire and Cornwall. In those two last counties we cannot attribute the failure of them to the want of warmth: the defect in the west is rather a presumptive argument that these birds come over to us from the continent at the narrowest passage, and do not stroll so far westward."

Upon the whole, the migration of birds is a fact beyond controversy, serving to shew the wonderful powers of instinct, and the abundant care of Providence to protect and succour the meanest of his creatures.

Of the INTELLECTUAL FACULTY of BRUTES.

THAT brute animals poſſeſs reflection and ſentiment, and are ſuſceptible of the kindly as well as the irraſcible paſſions, independently of ſexual attachment and natural affection; and that they have a great ſhare of fidelity, of pride, and even a ſenſe of glory; may be demonſtrated from the elephant, the horſe, and the dog. Elephants, even in a ſavage ſtate, are peaceable and gentle creatures, and never uſe their weapons but in defence of themſelves or companions. When tamed, he is the moſt friendly and obedient of all animals; and ſeems entirely devoted to the perſon who feeds and takes care of him. In a ſhort time he underſtands ſigns, and the ſound of his maſter's voice. He diſtinguiſhes the language of paſſion, of command, of ſatisfaction; and acts accordingly. He receives his orders with attention, and executes them with prudence and alacrity, but without precipitation. He eaſily learns to bow his knees and lower his body, for the convenience of thoſe who mount him. He careſſes his friends, and lifts burdens with his trunk, and aſſiſts thoſe who are loading him in laying them on his back; but above all he delights in ſhining harneſs and trappings, and in being thus led on to the war.

The intrepidity and ſagacity of the horſe has been regarded with admiration by all ranks of men, and in all ages of the world. Even in a domeſtic ſtate he is bold and fiery; and, equally undaunted as his maſter, faces danger and death with ardour and magnanimity. He delights in the noiſe and tumult of arms, and ſeems to feel the glory of victory: he exults in the chace; his eyes ſparkle with emulation in the courſe. But, though bold and intrepid, he is docile and tractable: he knows how to govern and check the natural vivacity and fire of his temper. He not only yields to the hand, but ſeems to conſult the inclination of his rider. Conſtantly obedient to the impreſſions he receives, his motions are entirely regulated by the will of his maſter. He in ſome meaſure reſigns his very exiſtence to the pleaſure of man. He delivers up his whole powers, he reſerves nothing; he will rather die than diſobey. Who could endure to ſee a character ſo noble abuſed? who could be guilty of ſuch groſs barbarity? none but wretches moſt relentleſs and unfeeling! We need go no further than the horſe, to prove how ſtrongly nature has endowed brute animals with memory; for whatever roads, paſtures, inns, or ſtables, a horſe has been accuſtomed to, though removed for years to a diſtant part of the country, he never forgets them; but if ever he returns, or paſſes by them again, he gives evident tokens that he has been accuſtomed to the place. The celebrated equeſtrians, Hughes and Aſtley, could, I doubt not, furniſh a thouſand curious anecdotes to illuſtrate this fact; and to ſhew that nothing is wanting but the gift of ſpeech to make them reaſonable creatures.

But to ſhew, more obviouſly, the reaſoning faculty of brutes, and to diſtinguiſh the operations of intellect from thoſe of inſtinct, we need only contemplate the actions and diſpoſition of the dog. In a ſavage ſtate, it muſt be allowed, that he is fierce, cruel, and voracious; but, when civilized and accuſtomed to live with men he is poſſeſſed of every amiable quality. He ſeems to have no other deſire than to pleaſe and protect his maſter. He is gentle, obedient, ſubmiſſive, and faithful. Theſe diſpoſitions, joined to his almoſt unbounded ſagacity juſtly claim the eſteem of mankind. Accordingly no animal is ſo much careſſed or reſpected: he is ſo ductile, and ſo much formed to pleaſe, that he aſſumes the very air and temper of the family in which he reſides. An animal endowed with ſuch uncommon qualities muſt anſwer many uſeful purpoſes. His fidelity and vigilance are daily employed to protect our perſons, our flocks, and our goods. The acuteneſs of his ſmell gains him employment in hunting: he is frequently employed as a turnſpit: at Bruſſels and in Holland he is trained to draw little carts to the herb-market; and in the northern regions draws a ſledge with his maſter in it, or elſe loaded

loaded with proviſions. The inſtances of ſagacity, fidelity, and attention, and even of foreſight, which theſe faithful animals have evinced towards their maſters, muſt have fallen under the obſervation of every reader; I ſhall therefore only recite the following inſtance, which is of unqueſtionable authenticity. At the ſeat of the late Earl of Litchfield, three miles from Blenheim, there is a portrait in the dining-room of Sir Henry Lee, by Johnſtone, with that of a maſtiff dog which ſaved his life. It ſeems a ſervant had formed the deſign of aſſaſſinating his maſter and robbing the houſe; but, the night he had fixed on, the dog, which had never been much noticed by Sir Henry, for the firſt time followed him up ſtairs, got under his bed, and could not be got from thence by either maſter or man; in the dead of night, the ſame ſervant entered the room to execute his horrid deſign, but was inſtantly ſeized by the dog, and being ſecured confeſſed his intentions. There are ten quaint lines in one corner of the picture, which conclude thus:

But in my dog, whereof I made no ſtore,
I find more love than thoſe I truſted more.

Upon what hypotheſis can we account for a degree of foreſight and penetration ſuch as this? Or will it be ſuggeſted, as a ſolution of the difficulty, that a dog may poſſibly become capable in a great meaſure of underſtanding human diſcourſe, and of reaſoning and acting accordingly; and that, in the preſent inſtance, the villain had either uttered his deſign in ſoliloquy, or imparted it to an accomplice, in the hearing of the animal?

It has been much diſputed whether the brutes have any language whereby they can expreſs their minds to each other; or whether all the noiſe they make conſiſts only of cries inarticulate, and unintelligible even to themſelves. We may indeed, from analogy, conclude, with great reaſon, that ſome of the cries of beaſts are really expreſſions of their ſentiments; but whether one beaſt is capable of forming a deſign, and communicating that deſign by any kind of language to others, is what I ſhall leave to the judgment of the reader, after ſubmitting to his conſideration the following inſtance. A ſparrow finding a neſt that a martin had juſt built, ſtanding very conveniently for him, poſſeſſed himſelf of it. The martin, ſeeing the uſurper in her houſe, called for help to expel him. A thouſand martins came full ſpeed, and attacked the ſparrow; but the latter being covered on every ſide, and preſenting only his large beak at the entrance of the neſt, was invulnerable, and made the boldeſt of them who durſt approach him repent of their temerity. After a quarter of an hour's combat, all the martins diſappeared. The ſparrow thought he had got the better, and the ſpectators judged that the martins had abandoned their undertaking. Not in the leaſt. Immediately they returned to the charge; and, each of them having procured a little of that tempered earth with which they make their neſts, they all at once fell upon the ſparrow, and incloſed him in the neſt to periſh there, though they could not drive him thence. Can it be imagined that the martins could have been able to hatch and concert this deſign all of them together, without ſpeaking to each other, or without ſome medium of communication equivalent to language?

From all theſe extraordinary endowments, manifeſted by brute animals of different countries and kinds, ſome philoſophers have maintained that brutes are endowed with a ſoul, though eſſentially inferior to that of men; and to this ſoul they have allowed immortality. Father Bougeant, a Jeſuit, has lately publiſhed a treatiſe expreſsly on this ſubject, entitled, *A Philoſophical Amuſement on the Language of Brutes*, in which he affirms that they are animated by evil ſpirits, or devils. The ſtrangeneſs of this doctrine has induced me to give the outline of his arguments, ſince they cannot fail to prove entertaining to the reader. "Reaſon (ſays he) naturally inclines us to believe that beaſts have a ſpiritual ſoul; and the only thing that oppoſes this ſentiment is, the conſequences that might be inferred from it. If brutes have a ſoul, that ſoul muſt be either matter or ſpirit; it muſt be one of the two, and yet you dare affirm neither. You dare not ſay it is matter, becauſe you muſt then neceſſarily ſuppoſe matter to be capable of thinking; nor will you ſay that it is

ſpirit,

ſpirit, this opinion bringing with it conſequences contrary to the principles of religion; and this, among others, that man would differ from beaſts only by the degrees of plus and minus, which would demoliſh the very foundation of all religion. Therefore, if I can elude all theſe conſequences; if I can aſſign to beaſts a ſpiritual ſoul, without ſtriking at the doctrines of religion; it is evident, that my ſyſtem, being moreover the moſt agreeable to reaſon, is the only warrantable hypotheſis. Now I ſhall and can do it, with the greateſt eaſe imaginable. I even have means, by the ſame method, to explain many very obſcure paſſages in the Holy Scripture, and to reſolve ſome very great difficulties which are not well confuted. This we ſhall unfold in a more particular manner. Religion teaches us, that the devils, from the very moment they had ſinned, were reprobate, and that they were doomed to burn for ever in hell; but the church has not yet determined whether they do actually endure the torments to which they are condemned. It may then be thought that they do not yet ſuffer them, and that the execution of the verdict brought againſt them is reſerved for the day of final judgment.—Now what I pretend to infer from hence is, that, till doomſday comes, God, in order not to ſuffer ſo many legions of reprobate ſpirits to be of no uſe, has diſtributed them through the ſeveral ſpaces of the world, to ſerve the deſigns of his Providence and make his omnipotence to appear. Some, continuing in their natural ſtate, buſy themſelves in tempting men, in ſeducing and tormenting them; either immediately, as Job's devil, and thoſe that lay hold of human bodies; or by the miniſtry of ſorcerers or phantoms. Theſe wicked ſpirits are thoſe whom the ſcripture calls the powers of darkneſs, or the powers of the air. God, with the others, makes millions of beaſts of all kinds, which ſerve for the uſes of men, which fill the univerſe, and cauſe the wiſdom and omnipotence of the Creator to be admired. By that means I can eaſily conceive, on the one hand, how the devils can tempt us; and on the other, how beaſts can think, know, have ſentiments, and a ſpiritual ſoul, without any way ſtriking at the doctrines of religion. I am no longer ſurpriſed to ſee them have forecaſt, memory, and judgment. I ſhould rather have occaſion to wonder at their having no more, ſince their ſoul very likely is more perfect than ours. But I diſcover the reaſon of this: it is becauſe, in beaſts as well as in ourſelves, the operations of the mind are dependent on the material organs of the machine to which it is united; and, thoſe organs being groſſer and leſs perfect than in us, it follows, that the knowledge, the thoughts, and the other ſpiritual operations, of the beaſts, muſt of courſe be leſs perfect than ours: and, if theſe proud ſpirits know their own diſmal ſtate, what an humiliation muſt it be to them thus to ſee themſelves reduced to the condition of beaſts! But, whether they know it or no, ſo ſhameful a degradation is ſtill, with regard to them, the primary effect of the divine vengeance I juſt mentioned; it is an anticipated hell."—Having mentioned the prejudices againſt this hypotheſis, ſuch particularly as the pleaſure which people of ſenſe and religion take in beaſts and birds, eſpecially all ſorts of domeſtic animals; he proceeds, "Do we love beaſts for their own ſakes! No. As they are altogether ſtrangers to human ſociety, they can have no other appointment but that of being uſeful and amuſing. And what care we whether it be a devil or any other creature that amuſes us? The thought of it, far from ſhocking, pleaſes me mightily. I with gratitude admire the goodneſs of the Creator, who gave me ſo many little devils to ſerve and amuſe me. If I am told that theſe poor devils are doomed to ſuffer eternal tortures, I admire God's decrees, but I have no manner of ſhare in that dreadful ſentence; I leave the execution of it to the ſovereign Judge; and, notwithſtanding this, I live with my little devils as I do with a multitude of people, of whom religion informs me that a great number ſhall be damned. But the cure of a prejudice is not to be effected in a moment; it is done by time and reflection: give me leave then lightly to touch upon this difficulty in order to obſerve a very important thing to you. Perſuaded as we are that beaſts have intelligence, have we not all of us a thouſand times

pitied them for the exceſſive evils which the majority of them are expoſed to, and in reality ſuffer? How unhappy is the condition of horſes! we are apt to ſay upon ſeeing a horſe whom an unmerciful carman is murdering with blows. How miſerable is a dog whom they are breaking for hunting! How diſmal is the fate of beaſts living in woods! they are perpetually expoſed to the injuries of the weather; always ſeized with apprehenſions of becoming the prey of hunters, or of ſome wilder animal; for ever obliged, after long fatigue, to look out for ſome poor inſipid food; often ſuffering cruel hunger; and ſubject, moreover, to illneſs and death! If men are ſubject to a multitude of miſeries that overwhelm them, religion acquaints us with the reaſon of it; viz. the being born ſinners. But what crimes can beaſts have committed by birth to be ſubject to evils ſo very cruel? What are we, then, to think of the horrible exceſſes of miſeries undergone by beaſts? miſeries, indeed, far greater than thoſe endured by men. This is, in any other ſyſtem, an incomprehenſible myſtery; whereas nothing is more eaſy to be conceived from the ſyſtem I propoſe. The rebellious ſpirits deſerve a puniſhment ſtill more rigorous, and happy is it for them that their puniſhment is deferred. In a word, God's goodneſs is vindicated, man himſelf is juſtified: for what right can we have, without neceſſity, and often in the way of mere diverſion, to take away the life of millions of beaſts, if God had not authoriſed us ſo to do? And, beaſts being as ſenſible as ourſelves of pain and death, how could a juſt and merciful God have given man that privilege, if they were not ſo many guilty victims of the divine vengeance?—But hear ſtill ſomething more convincing, and of greater conſequence: beaſts, by nature, are extremely vicious. We know well that they never ſin, becauſe they are not free; but this is the only condition wanting to make them ſinners. The voracious birds and beaſts of prey are cruel. Many inſects of one and the ſame ſpecies devour one another. Cats are perfidious and ungrateful; monkeys are miſchievous; and dogs envious. All beaſts in general are jealous and revengeful to exceſs; not to mention many other vices we obſerve in them: and at the ſame time that they are by nature ſo very vicious, they have, ſay we, neither the liberty nor any helps to reſiſt the bias that hurries them into ſo many bad actions. They are, according to the ſchools, neceſſitated to do evil, to diſconcert the general order, to commit whatever is moſt contrary to the notion we have of natural juſtice and to the principles of virtue. What monſters are theſe in a world originally created for order and juſtice to reign in! This is, in good part, what formerly perſuaded the Manicheans, that there were of neceſſity two orders of things, one good, and the other bad; and that the beaſts were not the work of the good principle: a monſtrous error! But how then ſhall we believe that beaſts came out of the hands of their Creator with qualities ſo very ſtrange! If man is ſo very wicked and corrupt, it is becauſe he has himſelf through ſin perverted the happy nature God had given him at his creation. Of two things, then, we muſt ſay one: either that God has taken delight in making beaſts ſo vicious as they are, and of giving us in them models of what is moſt ſhameful in the world; or that they have, like man, original ſin, which has perverted their primitive nature.—The firſt of theſe propoſitions finds very difficult acceſs to the mind, and is an expreſs contradiction to the Holy Scriptures; which ſay, that whatever came out of God's hands, at the time of the creation of the world, was good, yea very good. What good can there be in a monkey's being ſo very miſchievous, a dog ſo full of envy, a cat ſo malicious? But then many authors have pretended, that beaſts, before man's fall, were different from what they are now; and that it was in order to puniſh man that they became ſo wicked. But this opinion is a mere ſuppoſition, of which there is not the leaſt footſtep in Holy Scripture. It is a pitiful ſubterfuge to elude a real difficulty: this at moſt might be ſaid of the beaſts with whom man has a ſort of correſpondence; but not at all of the birds, fiſhes, and inſects, which have no manner of relation to him. We muſt then have recourſe to the ſecond propoſition, that the nature of beaſts has,

has, like that of man, been corrupted by ſome original ſin: another hypotheſis, void of foundation, and equally inconſiſtent with reaſon and religion, in all the ſyſtems which have been hitherto eſpouſed concerning the ſouls of beaſts. What party are we to take? Why, admit of my ſyſtem, and all is explained. The ſouls of beaſts are refractory ſpirits which have made themſelves guilty towards God. The ſin in beaſts is no original ſin; it is a perſonal crime, which has corrupted and perverted their nature in its whole ſubſtance; hence all the vices and corruption we obſerve in them, though they can be no longer criminal, becauſe God, by irrecoverably reprobating them, has at the ſame time diveſted them of their liberty."

Theſe quotations contain the ſtrength of Father Bougeant's hypotheſis, which alſo hath had is followers; but the reply to it is obvious. Beaſts, though remarkably miſchievous, are not completely ſo; they are in many inſtances capable of gratitude and love, which devils cannot poſſibly be. The very ſame paſſions that are in the brutes exiſt in the human nature; and if we choſe to argue from the exiſtence of thoſe paſſions, and the aſcendency they have over mankind at ſome times, we may ſay with as great juſtice, that the ſouls of men are devils, as that the ſouls of brutes are. All that can be reaſonably inferred from the greater prevalency of the malignant paſſions among the brutes than among men, is, that the former have leſs rationality than men: and accordingly it is found, that among ſavages, who exerciſe their reaſon leſs than other men, every ſpecies of barbarity is practiſed, without being deemed a crime.—Upon the whole, it is impoſſible to deduce this variety of action, in animals, from a general and uniform inſtinct only. For they accommodate their operations to times and circumſtances. They combine; they chuſe the favourable moment; they avail themſelves of the occaſion, and ſeem to receive inſtruction by experience. Many of their operations announce reflection: the bird repairs a ſhattered neſt, inſtead of conſtructing inſtinctively a new one: the hen, who has been robbed of her eggs, changes her place in order to lay the remainder with more ſecurity: the cat diſcovers both care and artifice in concealing her kittens. Again, it is evident, that, on many occaſions, animals know their faults and miſtakes, and correct them; they ſometimes contrive the moſt ingenious methods of obtaining their ends, and, when one method fails, have recourſe to another; and they have, without doubt, a kind of language for the mutual communication of their ideas. How is all this to be accounted for, unleſs we ſuppoſe them endowed with the powers of perceiving, thinking, remembering, comparing, and judging? They certainly have theſe powers, in a degree inferior to the human ſpecies, and form claſſes below them in the graduated ſcale of intelligent beings; but, their actions not being directed to moral ends, are conſequently not accountable and proper ſubjects for reward or puniſhment in a future world.

HISTORY OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

[*Continued from page* 147.]

WITH regard to the ancient religion of China, F. Amiot informs us, that, after making every poſſible reſearch, comparing and reaſoning upon his obſervations, he at laſt concluded, that "the Chineſe are a diſtinct people, who have ſtill preſerved the characteriſtic marks of their firſt origin; a people whoſe primitive doctrine will be found, by thoſe who take the trouble of inveſtigating it thoroughly, to agree in its eſſential parts with the doctrine of the choſen people, before Moſes, by the command of God himſelf, had conſigned the explanation of it to the ſacred records; a people, in a word, whoſe traditional knowledge, when freed from whatever the ignorance or ſuperſtition of later ages has added to it, may be traced back from age to age, and from epocha to epocha, without interruption, for the ſpace of four

four thouſand years, even to the renewal of the human race by the grandſon of Noah." The *king*, or canonical books of the Chineſe, every where inculcate the belief of a Supreme Being, the author and preſerver of all things. Under him they mention the names of *Tien*, or heaven; *Chang-tien*, or Supreme heaven; *Chang-ti*, or Supreme Lord; and of *Hoang-chang-ti*, Sovereign and Supreme Lord: "Names (ſays M. Groſier) correſponding to thoſe which we uſe when we ſpeak of God, the Lord, the Almighty, the Moſt High."

According to the Chineſe books, the Supreme Being is the principle of every thing that exiſts, and the father of all living; he is eternal, immovable, and independent; his power knows no bounds; his ſight equally comprehends the paſt, preſent, and future, penetrating even into the inmoſt receſſes of the heart. Heaven and earth are under his government; all events, all revolutions, are the conſequences of his will; he is pure, holy, and impartial: wickedneſs offends his ſight; but he beholds with an eye of complacency the virtuous actions of men. Severe, yet juſt, he puniſhes vice in a ſtriking manner even on the throne, and often precipitates from thence the guilty, to place upon it the man who walks after his own heart, whom he had raiſed from obſcurity. Good, merciful, and full of pity, he relents on the repentance of the wicked: public calamities, and the irregularities of the ſeaſons, are only ſalutary warnings, which his fatherly goodneſs gives to men to induce them to reform and amend.

The performance of religious worſhip at the proper and appointed times, has given occaſion to the great exactneſs with reſpect to the calendar, which is remarkable throughout the empire of China; and all the celebrated emperors have begun their reigns with a reformation of it. Hiſtorians, however, not contented with diſcovering in the Chineſe religion the fundamental principles of the ancient patriarchal religion, have alſo found in it evident ſymptoms of a knowledge of the Trinity as believed among Chriſtians. "Among the ancient Chineſe characters (ſays M. Groſier), which have eſcaped the ravages of time, we find the following, △. According to the dictionary of *Kang-hi*, this ſignifies union; according to the *Choue-ouen* (that book ſo highly eſteemed in China), △ is three united in one; it derives it from the characters *jou* (to enter or penetrate), and *ye* one; whence it concludes, that △ means the united, penetrated, or incorporated into one. According to another book, accounted a learned and accurate explanation of the ancient characters, '△ ſignifies ſtrict union, harmony, the chief good of man, of heaven, and of earth; it is the union of the three *tſai* (powers, principles, or intelligences); for, united, they direct, create, and nouriſh together. The image $\frac{\overline{1}}{1}$ three united in one figure, is not ſo obſcure in itſelf; however it is difficult to reaſon upon it without being deceived: on this ſubject it is difficult to ſpeak.'

"F. Amiot, ſpite of all the objections which the critics of Europe may make, ſeems to conjecture, that the character △ might have been, among the ancient Chineſe, the ſymbol of the moſt holy Trinity; 'and the more ſo (he adds), as the ancient books furniſh a number of texts, which give us reaſon to ſuppoſe them to have been poſſeſſed of ſome knowledge of this ſublime myſtery.' The book *See-ki* ſays, 'The emperor formerly offered up a ſolemn ſacrifice every three years to the Spirit, Trinity, and Unity, *Chin-ſan-ye*.' The following celebrated text of *Lao-tſe* has long been known to Europe. '*Tao* is one by nature: the firſt begot the ſecond; two produced the third; the three created all things.'

"F. Amiot quotes another paſſage, which appears to be no leſs ſingular. 'He who is, as it were, viſible, and cannot be ſeen, is named *Khi*; he who may be heard, yet ſpeaketh not to the ears, is called *Hi*; he whom in a manner we feel, yet cannot touch, is named *Ouei*. In vain do we interrogate our ſenſes reſpecting theſe three: our reaſon, which alone can give us any ſatisfaction, will tell us that they make only one. Above there is no light; below there is no darkneſs. He is eternal; there is no name which can be given him. He reſembles nothing that exiſts; he is an image without figure; a figure without

without matter: his light is ſurrounded by darkneſs. If we look up to him above, we behold no beginning; if we follow him, we diſcover no end. From what the *Tao* hath been at all times, conclude what he is, viz. that he is eternal: he is the beginning of wiſdom.' The commentaries which explain this paſſage ſpeak in ſuch ſtrong and preciſe terms, that F. Amiot forbears to quote them, leaſt he might incur the cenſure of too many incredulous readers."

The ſacrifices of the Chineſe were firſt offered up in the open fields, or in ſome mountain, upon what they call the *Tan*, which ſignifies a quantity of ſtones thrown together in a round form, or ſimply a round heap of earth. A double fence, called *Kiao*, compoſed of turf and branches of trees, was raiſed around this; and, in the ſpace left between the two fences, two ſmaller altars were erected on the right and left; upon which immediately after the ſacrifice offered to the *Tien*, they ſacrificed alſo to the *Cheng*, or good ſpirits of every rank, and to their virtuous anceſtors. The ſovereign alone had a right of ſacrificing upon this *Tan*; and the cuſtom of ſacrificing to inferior ſpirits, according to the Chineſe commentators, may be traced even to the days of *Fo-ki* himſelf. The ſame writers add, that, in addreſſing themſelves to the Chang-ti, they conſidered him as the ſovereign lord of the univerſe, clothed with all that power which was neceſſary to ſatisfy them with regard to the different objects of their requeſts; but that, in offering up their prayers to the inferior objects of worſhip, they only implored their protection and mediation with the Chang-ti.

While the empire was confined within narrow bounds, one mountain was ſufficient for the ſacrifices; but in proceſs of time it became neceſſary to conſecrate four others. Theſe were ſituated at the extremities of the empire, and were ſuppoſed to correſpond with the four quarters of the world; and the prince went ſucceſſively every year to one of theſe mountains to offer up ſacrifices; taking occaſion at the ſame time to ſhew himſelf to his people, and to inform himſelf of their wants. This cuſtom ſubſiſted for a long time; but at length it was found convenient to add a fifth mountain in the centre of the empire; and ever ſince theſe have been called the five *Yo*, or the five mountains of ſacrifice. This method of ſubjecting the emperor to regular annual journeys could not but be attended with many inconveniences. It was found neceſſary on this account to conſecrate ſome ſpot in the neighbourhood of his palace, which might be ſubſtituted for the *Yo* upon all occaſions when the emperor could not repair to them. An edifice was therefore erected which at once repreſented the *Kiao*, *Tan*, and the *Hall of anceſtors*. This laſt was a neceſſary part of the edifice; becauſe it was incumbent on thoſe who offered up ſacrifices, firſt to repair to this hall, and acquaint their anceſtors with what they were about to perform; and thither alſo they returned, after ſacrificing, to thank the ſame anceſtors for the protection they had received from the Chang-ti; after which they offered up a ſacrifice of thankſgiving in honour of them, and performed certain other ceremonies to ſhew their reſpect. The building contained five ſeparate halls, appropriated to different purpoſes: originally it had neither paintings nor ornaments of any kind, and a ſtaircaſe of nine ſteps conducted to the principal entrance. Afterwards, however, it was very richly ornamented, each of the five halls being decorated with columns, over which others were placed that ſupported a ſecond roof. In ſucceeding times it was ſtripped of all its ornaments, with a view to bring back religion to its primitive ſimplicity. Its four gates were covered with fine moſs, repreſenting the branches of which the double fence of the ancient *Kiao* were formed. The ridge of the roof was covered with the ſame, and the whole was encompaſſed by a canal filled with water at the time of offering up the ſacrifices. To this a ſecond building was added, which they called the temple of neatneſs, and which was uſed only for purifications and ceremonies, the former being entirely conſecrated to the worſhip of the Chang-ti.

At preſent there are only two temples in Peking, named the *Tien-tan* and the *Ti-tan*; in the conſtruction of which all the elegance of Chineſe architecture is diſplayed. Theſe are both dedicated

to

to the Chang-ti, but under different titles; in the one he is adored as the eternal ſpirit; in the other as the creator and preſerver of the world. The ceremonies of the modern ſacrifices are greatly multipled; and nothing can exceed the ſplendour and magnificence with which theſe ſolemnities are performed. Some time before the day appointed for the grand ceremony, the monarch, the grandees of the court, and all thoſe whom their employments qualify to aſſiſt at the ſolemnity, prepare themſelves by retirement, faſting, and continence; no audience is given by the emperor, and the tribunals are entirely ſhut; marriages, funerals, rejoicings, and entertainments of every kind, are then forbidden. At laſt, on the day appointed, the emperor appears attended by an innumerable multitude, and his perſon ſurrounded by a vaſt number of princes, lords, and officers, while every part of the temple ſeems to correſpond with the magnificence of the ſovereign; all the vaſes and utenſils employed in the ſacrifices are of gold, and cannot be applied to any other purpoſe; even the inſtruments of muſic are of enormous magnitude, and never uſed any where elſe. All this grandeur, however, ſerves only to diſplay in a more eminent manner the humility and abaſement of the monarch during his devotion; at which time he rolls in the duſt, and ſpeaks of himſelf before the Chang-ti in terms of the moſt abject ſubmiſſion and humiliation.

The purity of the ancient Chineſe religion has, however, been long contaminated by many idolatrous and fanatical ſects. Among theſe, one named Tao-tſe was founded by a philoſopher called Lao-kium or Lao-tſe, who was born 603 B. C. He died in an advanced age, leaving to his diſciples a book intitled Tao-te, being a collection of five thouſand ſentences. His morality has a great reſemblance to that of Epicurus. It conſiſts principally in baniſhing all vehement deſires and paſſions capable of diſturbing the peace and tranquillity of the ſoul. According to him the care of every wiſe man ought to be only to endeavour to live free from grief and pain, and to glide gently down the ſtream of life devoid of anxiety and care. To arrive at this happy ſtate, he adviſes his followers to baniſh all thoughts of the paſt, and to abſtain from every vain and uſeleſs inquiry concerning futurity, as well as all tormenting thoughts of ambition, avarice, &c. It was found by the diſciples of this philoſopher, however, that all their endeavours to obtain a perfect tranquillity of mind were vain, as long as the thoughts of death intervened: they therefore declared it poſſible to diſcover a compoſition from which drink might be made that would render mankind immortal. Hence they were led to the ſtudy of chemiſtry; and, like the weſtern alchemiſts, wearied themſelves in ſearch of the philoſopher's ſtone, until at laſt they gave themſelves up to all the extravagancies of magic.

The deſire of avoiding death, together with the credulity natural to unenlightened minds, quickly produced a number of converts to the ſect of Toatſe Magical practices, the invocation of ſpirits, and the art of foretelling events by divination, quickly diffuſed themſelves over the empire, and the imbecility of the emperors contributed to propagate the deception. Temples conſecrated to ſpirits quickly reared their heads in every corner of the empire; and two of the moſt celebrated of the ſect were authoriſed to maintain public worſhip there after the form which had been preſcribed by their maſter. At the ſame time they diſtributed, and ſold at a dear rate, images of the imaginary ſpirits with which they had peopled the heavens and the earth. Theſe were, by their command, worſhipped as ſo many deities independent of the Supreme Being; and in like manner, ſeveral of the ancient emperors were invoked as gods.

Being patroniſed by the emperors of ſeveral dynaſties, this ſect became more and more powerful. At laſt they had the imprudence to affix, during the night-time, to one of the gates of the imperial city, a book filled with myſtic characters and magical figures. At break of day they informed the emperor of the ſudden appearance of this book, and publicly declared that is was fallen from heaven. This trick eaſily impoſed upon the weak prince. He immediately repaired, with a numerous

rous train, to the ſpot where the ſacred volume appeared; and, having taken it into his hands in a reſpectful manner, carried it in triumph to his palace, where he ſhut it up in golden box. Another emperor carried his reverence for the ſect to ſuch an height of impiety and extravagance, as to order a celebrated Tao-ſſe to be publicly worſhipped under the name of Chang-ti. The ſect, thus patroniſed by the princes and accommodated to the credulity of the vulgar, continued to gain ground in ſpite of every oppoſition from the wiſer part of the people, and is ſtill very powerful in China. At preſent they offer up three different victims, a hog, a fowl, and a fiſh, to a ſpirit whom they invoke. Various ceremonies, ſuch as howling, drawing fantaſtical figures upon paper, making an hideous noiſe with kettles and drums, are uſed in their incantations; and, though it may readily be believed that they are for the moſt part unſucceſsful, yet their credit is ſtill kept up by thoſe caſes in which they ſucceed by accident.

The chief of the Tao-ſſe is inveſted by government with the dignity of grand mandarin, which is enjoyed by his ſucceſſors: he reſides in a ſumptuous palace in a town of Kiang-ſi; and the ſuperſtitious confidence of the people attracts an immenſe number thither from all parts of the empire. Some arrive in order to be cured of diſeaſes, others to get an inſight into futurity. The impoſtor diſtributes to them ſmall bits of paper filled with magical characters; and the ignorant wretches depart well ſatisfied, without grudging the expence of their journey, though ever ſo long.

A ſtill more pernicious and more widely-diffuſed ſect is that of the idol Fo, which came originally from India. The Tao-ſſe had promiſed to the brother of one of the emperors of China to introduce him to a communication with ſpirits. The credulous prince having heard of a great ſpirit named Fo, who reſided in India, prevailed on his brother to ſend an embaſſy thither. On the arrival of the ambaſſadors, however, they could find only two worſhippers of this deity, both of whom they brought to China. Several images of Fo were alſo collected at the ſame time; and theſe, together with ſome canonical books of the Indians, were placed on a white horſe, and carried in proceſſion to the imperial city.

This ſuperſtition was introduced into China about the 65th year of the Chriſtian æra, and ſoon made vaſt progreſs. One of its principal doctrines is that of the metempſychoſis, or tranſmigration of ſouls, of which M. Groſier thinks he was the inventor, and that Pythagoras, who travelled into ſeveral parts of India, had borrowed the doctrine from him. The account given of him by the bonzes is, that finding himſelf, at the age of ſeventy, oppreſſed with infirmities, he called his diſciples together, and told them he was unwilling to leave the world without communicating the ſecret and hidden myſteries of his doctrine; which were, in ſhort, that all things had proceeded from a vacuum and nothing, and to that they muſt return. This doctrine produced a correſponding mode of action, or rather of inaction, in thoſe who believed it: for thus the great happineſs of man was made to conſiſt in abſolute annihilation; and therefore, the nearer he could bring himſelf to this ſtate during life, the happier he was ſuppoſed to be.

The common doctrine, however, which admits of a diſtinction between good and evil, finds more proſelytes among the vulgar, whoſe ſituation in life will not allow them to ſpend their time in perpetual idleneſs. According to this, the righteous will be rewarded and the wicked puniſhed after death. They ſay alſo, that the god Fo came to ſave mankind, and to expiate their ſins; and that he alone can procure them a happy regeneration in the life to come. Five precepts are likewiſe inculcated on thoſe who adopt this doctrine: 1. Not to kill any living creature. 2. Not to take away the goods of another. 3. Not to pollute themſelves by uncleanneſs. 4. Not to lie. And, 5. Not to drink wine. Above all, they recommend to them to perform acts of mercy, to treat their bonzes well, build temples, &c.

The doctrine of metempſychoſis has introduced into China an infinite number of idols, who are all worſhipped on the ſuppoſition that the ſpirit of Fo has tranſmigrated into the animals they repreſent. Theſe idols, however, ſeem no

not to be worſhipped with great ſincerity; but, like the images of ſaints in the more ſuperſtitious countries of Europe, are beaten and thrown into the dirt when their votaries happen not to obtain their deſires, which they impute to the obſtinacy or weakneſs of the idol. Nay, M. Groſier gives an account of one man, who, having ineffectually paid a ſum of money to the bonze of a certain idol for the cure of his daughter, brought a formal accuſation againſt the idol itſelf; and, in ſpite of all that the bonzes could ſay in its behalf, got its worſhip ſuppreſſed in all the province.

The bonzes of China are repreſented as a moſt avaricious and hypocritical race of men, ready to practiſe every kind of villany, and even to ſubject themſelves to the moſt intolerable tortures, in order to obtain money from the compaſſion of the public when they connot get it in any other way; and an edict of one of the emperors is cited, by which great numbers of their religious houſes were ſuppreſſed. In order to perpetuate their ſect, they purchaſe young children, whom they take care to inſtruct in all the myſteries and tricks of their profeſſion; but, excepting this, they are in general very ignorant, and few of them would be able to give any tolerable account of the tenets of their own ſect. They are not ſubject to a regular hierarchy, but acknowledge ſuperiors among them whom they call grand bonzes, who have the firſt place in all religious aſſemblies at which they happen to be preſent: and great profit is derived from certain religious clubs, both of men and women, at which the bonzes are always called to aſſiſt. Their wealth is likewiſe augmented by pilgrimages to certain places where there are temples more or leſs reverenced, and where a multitude of abſurd ceremonies are performed. Theſe bonzes, as may be eaſily imagined, are inveterate enemies to the progreſs of Chriſtianity, telling the moſt abſurd ſtories concerning the miſſionaries; as that they pluck out the eyes of their converts to conſtruct teleſcopes with, &c. The literati, however, and the more ſenſible part of the nation, hold them in the greateſt contempt.

We ſhall conclude this detail of the Chineſe religion with giving an account of one other ſuperſtition which ſeems peculiar to the nation. It is named fong-choui, which ſignifies wind and water. By this they mean the lucky or unlucky ſituation of a houſe, burying-place, &c. If any imprudent perſon has built a houſe cloſe to that of a Chineſe, in ſuch a manner that the angle formed by its roof flanks the walls or roof of the former houſe, the proprietor ever after lives in terror of utter ruin and deſtruction from the malignant influence of that angle. An implacable hatred inſtantly commences betwixt the two families, and often gives riſe to a law-ſuit, which furniſhes matter of diſcuſſion for ſome of the ſuperior tribunals. If no redreſs can be had at law, however, the Chineſe is then reduced to the neceſſity of erecting, on the top of his houſe, an enormous image of a dragon, or ſome other monſter, with its mouth gaping towards the angle, and, as it were, threatening to ſwallow it up; after which the apprehenſions of the proprietor begin to ſubſide, and tranquillity is reſtored to the family. In this manner the governor of Kien-tchang ſecured himſelf from the influence of the church of the Jeſuits, which, being built on an eminence, overlooked his palace. Not depending, however, entirely on the good offices of his tutelary dragon, he alſo took the wiſe precaution of altering his principal apartments, and raiſing at the diſtance of two hundred paces from the church a kind of large façade three ſtories high. But unluckily the death of his ſucceſſor was attributed to this façade; for the mandarin being attacked with a diſorder in the breaſt, which made him ſpit up a white phlegm, this ſymptom was thought to be owing to the walls of the façade, which were very white, and which were forthwith painted black. The ſalutary precaution, however, happened to be taken too late; for the governor died notwithſtanding the black colour of the walls.

"We ſhould never have done (ſays M. Groſier), were we to relate all the ſuperſtitious ideas of the Chineſe, reſpecting the lucky and unlucky ſituation of houſes, the quarter which doors ought to front, and the plan and day proper for conſtructing the ſtoves in which they cook their rice." But the

object on which they employ their greateſt care is the choice of the ground and ſituation for a burying-place. Some quacks follow no other profeſſion than that of pointing out hills and mountains which have an aſpect favourable for works of that kind. When a Chineſe is perſuaded of the truth of ſuch information, there is no ſum which he would not give to be in poſſeſſion of the fortunate ſpot. The greater part of the Chineſe are of opinion that all the happineſs and misfortunes of life depend upon the ſong-choui.

A colony of Jews was eſtabliſhed in China about the year 206 B. C. but they are now reduced to a ſmall number of families at Cai-ſong, the capital of the province of Honan. The Mahometans have multiplied much more than the Jews. It is above ſix hundred years ſince they firſt entered the empire, where they have formed different eſtabliſhments. At firſt their number was augmented only by marriages; but for ſome time paſt they have been more particularly attentive to the extending of their ſect and propagating their doctrine. The principal means employed for this purpoſe are, to purchaſe a great number of children brought up in idolatry, whom their poor parents are glad to part with; and theſe they circumciſe, and afterwards inſtruct in the principles of their religion. During the time of a famine which deſolated the province of Chang-tong, they purchaſed more than ten thouſand of theſe children; for whom, when grown up, they procured wives, built houſes, and even formed whole villages of them. They are now become ſo numerous, that in the places where they reſide they entirely exclude every inhabitant who does not believe in their prophet and frequent a moſque.

(To be continued.)

CHARACTER OF JULIUS CÆSAR, BY A PHILOSOPHER.

JULIUS Cæſar, the illuſtrious Roman general and hiſtorian, was born at Rome the 12th of the month Quintilis, in the year of the city 653. By his valour and eloquence he acquired the higheſt reputation in the field and in the ſenate. Beloved and reſpected by his fellow-citizens, he enjoyed ſucceſſively every magiſterial and military honour the republic could beſtow conſiſtent with its own free conſtitution. But at length, having ſubdued Pompey the great rival of his growing power, his boundleſs ambition effaced the glory of his former actions: for, purſuing his favourite maxim, "that he had rather be the *firſt* man in a village that the *ſecond* in Rome," he procured himſelf to be choſen perpetual dictator; and, not content with this unconſtitutional power, his faction had reſolved to raiſe him to the imperial dignity; when the friends of the civil liberties of the republic raſhly aſſaſſinated him in the ſenate-houſe, where they ſhould only have ſeized him and brought him to a legal trial for uſurpation. By this impolitic meaſure they defeated their own purpoſe, involving the city in conſternation and terror, which produced general anarchy, and paved the way to the revolution they wanted to prevent; the monarchial government being abſolutely founded on the murder of Julius Cæſar. He fell in the 56th year of his age, 43 years before the Chriſtian æra.

If, after the lapſe of 18 centuries, the truth may be publiſhed without offence, a philoſopher might, in the following terms, cenſure Cæſar without calumniating him, and applaud him without exciting his bluſhes.

Cæſar had one predominant paſſion: it was the love of glory; and he paſſed 40 years of his life in ſeeking opportunities to foſter and encourage it. His ſoul, entirely abſorbed in ambition, did not open itſelf to other impulſes. He cultivated letters; but he did not love them with enthuſiaſm, becauſe he had not leiſure to become the firſt orator of Rome. He corrupted the one half of the Roman ladies, but his heart had no concern in the fiery ardours of his ſenſes. In the arms of Cleopatra, he thought of Pompey; and this ſingular man, who diſdained to have a partner in the empire of the world, would have bluſhed to have been for one inſtant the ſlave of a woman.

We muſt not imagine that Cæſar was born a warrior, as Sophocles and Mil-

ton were born poets. For, if nature had made him a citizen of Sybaris, he would have been the moſt voluptuous of men. If in our days he had been born in Pennſylvania, he would have been the moſt inoffenſive of quakers, and would not have diſturbed the tranquillity of the new world.

The moderation with which he conducted himſelf after his victories has been highly extolled; but in this he ſhewed his penetration, not the goodneſs of his heart. Is it not obvious, that the diſplay of certain virtues is neceſſary to put in motion the political machine? It was requiſite that he ſhould have the appearance of clemency, if he expected that Rome ſhould forgive him his victories. But what greatneſs of mind is there in a generoſity which follows on to the uſurpation of ſupreme power?

Nature, while it marked Cæſar with a ſublime character, gave him alſo that ſpirit of perſeverance which renders it uſeful. He had no ſooner begun to reflect, than he admired Sylla; hated him, and yet wiſhed to imitate him. At the age of fifteen, he formed the project of being dictator. It was thus that the preſident Monteſquieu conceived, in his early youth, the idea of the Spirit of Laws.

Phyſical qualities, as well as moral cauſes, contributed to give ſtrength to his character. Nature, which had made him for command, had given him an air of dignity. He had acquired that ſoft and inſinuating eloquence, which is perfectly ſuited to ſeduce vulgar minds, and has a powerful influence on the moſt cultivated. His love of pleaſure was a merit with the fair-ſex; and women, who even in a republic can draw to them the ſuffrages and attention of men, have the higheſt importance in degenerate times. The ladies of his age were charmed with the proſpect of having a dictator whom they might ſubdue by their attractions.

In vain did the genius of Cato watch for ſome time to ſuſtain the liberty of his country. It was unequal to contend with that of Cæſar. Of what avail where the eloquence, the philoſophy, and the virtue, of this republican, when oppoſed by a man who had the addreſs to debauch the wife of every citizen whoſe intereſt he meant to engage; who, poſſeſſing an enthuſiaſm for glory, wept, becauſe, at the age of thirty, he had not conquered the world like Alexander; and who, with the haughty temper of a deſpot, was more deſirous to be the firſt man in a village than the ſecond in Rome.

Cæſar had the good fortune to exiſt in times of trouble and civil commotions, when the minds of men are put into a ferment; when opportunities of great actions are frequent; when talents are every thing, and thoſe who can only boaſt of their virtues are nothing. If he had lived an hundred years ſooner, he would have been no more than an obſcure citizen; and, inſtead of giving laws to the world, would not have been able to produce any confuſion in it.

I will here be bold enough to advance an idea, which may appear paradoxical to thoſe who weakly judge of men from what they atchieve, and not from the principle which leads them to act. Nature formed in the ſame mould Cæſar, Mahomet, Cromwell, and Kouli Khan. They all of them united to genius that profound policy which renders it ſo powerful. They all of them had an evident ſuperiority over thoſe with whom they were ſurrounded; they were conſcious of this ſuperiority, and they made others conſcious of it. They were all of them born ſubjects, and became fortunate uſurpers. Had Cæſar been placed in Perſia, he would have made the conqueſt of India; in Arabia, he would have been the founder of a new religion; in London, he would have ſtabbed his ſovereign, or have procured his aſſaſſination under the ſanction of the laws. He reigned with glory over men whom he had reduced to be ſlaves; and, under one aſpect, he is to be conſidered as a hero; under another, as a monſter. But it would be unfortunate indeed for ſociety, if the poſſeſſion of ſuperior talents gave individuals a right to trouble its repoſe. Uſurpers accordingly have flatterers, but no friends; ſtrangers reſpect them; their ſubjects complain and ſubmit; it is in their own families that humanity finds her avengers, Cæſar was aſſaſſinated by his ſon, Mahomet was poiſoned by his wife, Kouli Khan

Khan was maſſacred by his nephew, and Cromwell only died in his bed becauſe his ſon Richard was a philoſopher.

Cæſar has been accounted a great man by the mob of writers. But it is only the philoſopher who knows how to mark the barrier between celebrity and greatneſs. The talents of this ſingular man, and the good fortune which conſtantly attended him till the moment of his aſſaſſination, have greatly concealed the enormity of his actions.

CHARLOTTE CORDEY. With an elegant Portrait, taken from real Life.

CHARLOTTE Cordey was a native of Caen in Normandy, of an ancient and reſpectable family. She poſſeſſed an independent fortune, with which ſhe maintained an aged parent. In July 1793 ſhe conceived and executed the deſign of ridding the world of that monſter of iniquity, Marat; and for that purpoſe ſhe came to Paris. The particulars of this event have been already given in p. 126 of this work.

In the examinations which ſhe underwent previous to her trial, ſhe ſaid nothing that could affect either Duperret or Fauchet, who were ſuſpected to have been acquainted with her deſign; and no facts were obtained from her relative to the pretended plot of aſſaſſinating the members of the Mountain.

Her trial came on the 18th of July, the day after the funeral of Marat. When brought to the bar of the revolutionary tribunal, ſhe preſerved the moſt undaunted countenance, had her hair elegantly dreſſed, and was attired more fit for the celebration of her nuptials than to receive the awful ſentence of death. The dignity of her deportment, and the ſtern penetration of her eye, repeatedly put her judges out of countenance, and for a time faſcinated the jury; and her anſwers, by their boldneſs, ſtruck every ſpectator with aſtoniſhment. At the beginning of her trial ſhe thus addreſſed her judges: "I did not expect to appear before you—I always thought that I ſhould be delivered up to the rage of the people, torn to pieces, and that my head, ſtuck on the top of a pike, would have preceded Marat on the ſtate-bed, to ſerve as a rallying point to Frenchmen, if there ſtill are any worthy of that name. But, happen what will, if I have the honours of the guillotine, and my clay-cold remains are buried, they will ſoon have conferred upon them the honours of the Pantheon, and my memory will be more honoured in France than that of Judith in Bethulia."—Sentence of death was pronounced upon this reſolute woman, and ſhe was executed in the evening.

The funeral of Marat was celebrated with the greateſt pomp and ſolemnity. All the ſections joined in the proceſſion, ſome with their colours, but all of them with their ſtandards. An immenſe crowd of people attended it. Four women bore the bathing-machine in which Marat was ſtanding when he was aſſaſſinated; his ſhirt, ſtained with blood, was carried by another amazon at the top of a pike. After this followed a wooden bedſtead, on which the corpſe of Marat was carried by citizens. His head was uncovered, and the gaſh made by the knife of the aſſaſſin could be eaſily diſtinguiſhed. The proceſſion paſſed thro' ſeveral ſtreets; and was ſaluted on its march by ſeveral diſcharges of artillery. The aſſaſſination of Marat, which ſeemed calculated to ſtrike the Jacobins with a mortal blow, on the contrary inſpired them with greater energy and vigour. The news of his death was no ſooner ſpread abroad, than the drum was beaten in all the ſections, to announce to them, as it were, that a great misfortune had befallen the republic; the death of this extravagant and deſpicable wretch cauſed a public mourning.

The two following letters were written by Mad. Cordey while in priſon; they are preſerved here becauſe they develope her heroic and eccentric character more than the moſt laboured deſcription from another hand.

Madame Cordey to Barbaroux.

"Citizen, Abbaye Priſon.

"As you expreſſed a wiſh to be acquainted with the detail of my journey, I ſhall make no apology for tranſmitting you the moſt minute particulars.

"As ſoon as I arrived at Paris, I hired a lodging at the Hotel de la Providence, in the Rue des Vieux Auguſ-

tins.—I then employed myself in finding out your friend Duperret—by what means the committee of general safety discovered my conference with that citizen, I am at a loss to guess—you are ignorant of the firmness of this man's soul. He replied to the accusation adduced against him without varying from the truth, which I confirmed by my evidence; but, though he is entirely innocent of the charge, his firmness is imputed to him as a crime.

"Would you believe that Fauchet has been committed to prison as my accomplice?—He did not know that such a woman existed; but I find the sacrifice of an insignificant being like myself will be deemed insufficient to appease the manes of this great man—of this great man!—Alas, it is an affront to the rest of mankind to consider him as a man.—He was a beast, who, grasping the torch of civil war, set fire to the whole republic. Thanks to God, however, he was not a native of France.

"Four members of the national convention were present at my first examination. Chabot looked like a fool—Legendre thought that he had seen me in the morning at his house; but he was deceived, for I did not conceive him sufficiently important to become the tyrant of his country; and I do not pretend to punish every one.—All those who never saw me before were convinced that they had known me a long time. I believe the last words of Marat have been published, but I doubt whether they have been correctly published.

"After having mentioned your name, and the commissioners of Calvados, who are at Evreux, he made use of the following expression—"That in a few days you should be guillotined, through his means, at Paris."—These words determined me, and I stabbed him. Should the department place him opposite to St. Fargeau, the speech I have quoted ought to be engraved upon his bust in letters of gold.

"I shall enter into no detail of this important event. The public prints will give you sufficient information.—I own, that the courage with which our volunteers enlisted, on Sunday, the 7th of July, made me no longer hesitate. You remember how delighted I was with the sight, and I promised Petion that he should soon repent of the suspicion which he entertained of my sentiments.—"Should you indeed be sorry if these men were not to depart?"—These were Petion's words.

"In short, I reflected that so many brave men travelling to Paris to obtain the head of a single man might have failed of success; or, if they had not, many good citizens might have been sacrificed to him, who deserved not such an honour. The hand of a woman alone was sufficient!—I acknowledge that I used perfidious means to obtain access to him.—In the outset of my journey I had resolved to stab him on the top of the Mountain, in the convention; but he was not able to attend the convention. At Paris it is a matter of astonishment, that a woman of no estimation in society, who, during the longest period of existence, would have been of no use, could sacrifice her life to save her country.—I expected to have perished immediately after the accomplishment of the deed; but some brave men, superior to all praise, preserved me from the popular fury.

"May the establishment of public tranquillity be attained speedily!—The criminal, who, had he lived, would have prevented such an effect, exists no more. During these two days my soul has been calm and serene—my country's happiness constitutes my own. I fear that my father, who has cause to lament my loss, will be persecuted. May my apprehensions be unfounded, and may the God of all protect him! I wrote to him lately, informing him, that, dreading the effects of a civil war, I had resolved to set out for England. It was my intention then to have disclosed my name to no one. I entreat you, citizen, and your colleagues, to defend my parents, should any violence be offered them. I never hated but one person.

"Those who mourn my loss will rejoice to see me enjoy an eternal repose in the Elysian-fields, with Brutus and other patriots among the ancients. Few exist now who would die for their country!—those who call themselves patriots are all egotists.

"Two gens d'armes have been ordered to attend me, for the purpose of preserving me from *ennui*: their company, during the day, was tolerable; but I could have dispensed with their attendance in the night. I complained

to

to the committee of this indelicacy, but they were pleaſed, on the ſubject of my complaint, *to paſs to the order of the day*. I have reaſon to believe that this indecorous mode of treating me proceeded from Chabot—at leaſt, I am ſure that none but a capuchin would have thought of it. CHARLOTTE CORDEY."

Letter of Charlotte Cordey addreſſed to her Father.

Conciergerie, *July* 16.

"My reſpected father,

"Peace is about to reign in my country—Marat is no more! Be comforted, and bury me in eternal oblivion. I am to be judged to-morrow, the 17th, at ſeven o'clock in the morning. I have lived long enough, as I have atchieved a great exploit. I put you under the protection of Barbaroux and his colleagues, in caſe you ſhould be moleſted. Let my relatives find my homage here: and remember, each and all of you, that crime begets diſgrace, and not the ſcaffold.

CHARLOTTE CORDEY."

METHOD OF CLEANING GOLD LACE.

FOR this purpoſe alkaline liquors are by no means to be uſed; for, while they clean the gold, they corrode the ſilk, and change or diſcharge its colour. Soap alſo alters the ſhade, and even the ſpecies of certain colours. But ſpirit of wine may be uſed without any danger of its injuring either the colour or quality of the ſubject; and in many caſes proves as effectual, for reſtoring the luſtre of the gold, as the corroſive detergents. A rich brocade, flowered with a variety of colours, after being diſagreeably tarniſhed, had the luſtre of the gold perfectly reſtored by waſhing it with a ſoft bruſh dipped in warm ſpirt of wine; and ſome of the colours of the ſilk, which were likewiſe ſoiled, became at the ſame time remarkably bright and lively. Spirit of wine ſeems to be the only material adapted to this intention, and probably the boaſted ſecret of certain artiſts is no other than this ſpirit diſguiſed. Among liquids, Dr. Lewis ſays he does not know of any other that is of ſufficient activity to diſcharge the foul matter, without being hurtful to the ſilk: as to powders, however fine, and however cautiouſly uſed, they ſcratch and wear the gold, which here is only ſuperficial and of extreme tenuity.

But, though ſpirit of wine is the moſt innocent material that can be employed for this purpoſe, it is not in all caſes proper. The golden covering may be in ſome parts worn off; or the baſe metal with which it has been iniquitouſly alloyed, may be corroded by the air, ſo as to leave the particles of the gold diſunited; while the ſilver underneath, tarniſhed to a yellow hue, may continue a tolerable colour to the whole: in which caſes it is apparent, that the removal of the tarniſh would be prejudicial to the colour, and make the lace or embroidery leſs like gold than it was before. A piece of old tarniſhed gold lace, cleaned by ſpirit of wine, was deprived, with its tarniſh, of the greateſt part of its golden hue, and looked now almoſt like ſilver lace.

Method of ſeparating the gold and ſilver from lace without burning it.—Cut the lace in pieces, and (having ſeparated the thread from it by which it was ſewed to the garment) tie it up in a linen cloth, and boil it in ſoap-ley, diluted with water, till you perceive it is diminiſhed in bulk; which will take up but a little time, unleſs the quantity of lace be very conſiderable. Then take out the cloth, and waſh it ſeveral times in cold water, ſqueezing it pretty hard with your foot, or beating it with a mallet, to clear it of the ſoap-ley; then untie the cloth, and you will have the metallic part of the lace pure, and no where altered in colour or diminiſhed in weight. This method is abundantly more convenient and leſs troubleſome than the common way of burning; and, as a ſmall quantity of the ley will be ſufficient, the expence will be trifling, eſpecially as the ſame ley may be uſed ſeveral times, if cleared of the ſilky calcination. It may be done in either an iron or copper veſſel.

The ley may be had at the ſoap-boilers, or it may be made of pearl-aſh and quick-lime boiled together in a ſufficient quantity of water.

RE-CAP-

RE-CAPTURE OF THE FREE PORT OF OSTEND, BY ADMIRAL MACBRIDE. With a fine Copper-plate Print.

OSTEND is a city of Flanders, in the Auſtrian Netherlands, and within the juriſdiction of Bruges. This is a conſiderable ſea-port, ſituated in marſhy ground, among canals, two of which, and the largeſt, ſurround it; and veſſels of the greateſt burden can enter them within tide of flood. In 1776 a baſon, thirteen hundred yards broad, was opened, which is ſecured by gates, and will admit veſſels in the morning tide. It has a ſtrong rampart, deep ditch, and eight regular baſtions; from the year 1601, it held out a ſiege that laſted above three years againſt the whole power of Spain, being defended by the Engliſh and Dutch, who were continually throwing in ſupplies, and Sir Francis Vere, the governor, eminently diſtinguiſhed his conduct on this occaſion: the Spaniards, under the Archduke Albert, and Spinola, are ſaid to have loſt eighty thouſand men before this place; ſo that at length the beſieged were forced to capitulate merely for want of ground, the aſſailants having gained foot by foot, till there was no room left to defend it. Upon the death of King Charles II. of Spain, the French ſeized Oſtend; but the allies beſieged and took it after the battle of Ramillies, in 1706. The emperor Charles VI. had formed a project of eſtabliſhing an Eaſt-India company here; but this giving umbrage to the maritime powers it was dropped. It was declared a free port in 1772. Here is no freſh water, but what they are obliged to fetch in boats from Bruges, it lying fourteen miles from this city. Lat. 51, 14, north. Long. 2, 59, eaſt.

The Auſtrians were driven out of Oſtend by the French republican troops under General Dumourier, November 25, 1792, after which all communications between England and France were entirely cut off, and the poſts and packets diſcontinued. During this interval, Admiral Macbride, with a ſmall ſquadron of Engliſh ſhips, was ſent againſt it; and he attacked the caſtle on the 30th of March 1793, and in a few hours took poſſeſſion of the whole garriſon. The expedition was conducted with ſo much ſecrecy, that at twelve o'clock at noon the French had not the ſmalleſt idea of an approaching enemy; but an Engliſh ſquadron appearing off, and ſtanding in for the harbour, they ſoon became greatly alarmed. They fired from the batteries at the Engliſh veſſels; but, ſeeing them reſolute in ſtanding in, they ſpiked their guns, and retreated with the utmoſt precipitation. The terror of the French was much increaſed by the inhabitants, who told them that each of the cutters had five hundred Britiſh troops on-board. Before the French left the town, the inhabitants aſſembled to cut down the tree of liberty; when the French dragoons of the rear-guard galloped in amongſt them, and with ſavage ferocity cut down all before them: a number of perſons were deſperately wounded.—Only one veſſel eſcaped out of the harbour of Oſtend. She was loaded with oil, and was chaſed into Dunkirk by one of the Engliſh cutters. The reſt, to a conſiderable number, loaded with corn, proviſions, ſtores, &c. were made prizes to the Britiſh ſhips of war; the garriſon, together with the French magazine of naval and military ſtores, ſtand of colours, cannon, baggage, &c. were taken poſſeſſion of by the Engliſh officers, ſoldiers, and ſeamen, in the name of his Britannic majeſty; and the Engliſh colours were immediately hoiſted in the caſtle and garriſon, over thoſe of the French, to the inexpreſſible joy of the inhabitants. This expedition was planned by Admiral Macbride, to whoſe zeal, activity, and judgment, it bears an honourable teſtimony; and it is but juſtice to ſay, that it was ably and ſucceſsfully executed by the officers and men under him; which will be recorded, in its proper place, in the Hiſtory of the Wars of England hereunto annexed; and in which likewiſe the elegant plate of this memorable tranſaction is to be placed.

POETRY.

POETRY.

THE DEATH of MORCAR, King of the BRITONS.

WITH plaintive ſtrain, in meaſures ſoft and ſlow,
The minſtrels melt the tender heart to woe.
Morcar's breaſt has ceas'd to beat;
Gaſh'd with ſpears the warrior lies;
Bold he turn'd the baſe retreat,
Gain'd the day, and clos'd his eyes.
The wounds that ſcar his manly breaſt,
Like blood-ſtain'd trophies, grace his bier;
Yet Nature views the ſcene depreſs'd
And ſilent falls a pitying tear.

Empty beneath yon oak his car is caſt.
Stretch'd o'er the mead his courſers breathleſs lie;
Remembrance wakes the glorious triumph paſt,
And fills with tender grief the gazing eye.

No more beneath the morning ſun,
With dazzling helm, in Nature's pride,
The warrior down the rocks ſhall run,
His faulcion glittering at his ſide.

Near yonder brook ſhall reſt his bones,
His gory axe beſide him laid;
The ſpot be mark'd by moſſy ſtones;
And tears of warriors wet the blade.

With bended forms the mourning chieftains ſtand,
And gaze the paly corſe with ſtedfaſt eye,
And ſilent muſe on frail mortality;—
And ſofteſt ſorrow melts the ſympathetic band.

Ye ſhades of heroes, nobly ſlain,
Fighting for your native plain;
Sons of war, who bravely ſped,
Boadicea at your head;
If your ſouls, return'd to light,
Chaſe the wolf down Snowdon's height,
Or muſe on blood in caverns drear,
Or poiſe in darkſome groves the ſpear;
Come behold the radiant flame,
That ſpeaks the glory of our name.
On Skiddaw's ſummit mid the ſkies,
Let the blazing pile ariſe,
That o'er the mountains, dark in night,
Wide may ſtream the glorious light.
Hark! the huge cleſts of Borrowdale,
And lonely Derwent's peaceful vale,
Repeat the dying ſufferer's mournful wail.
In yellow Tiber's orange ſhades
Cæſar's pining form ſhall lie,
And caſt on diſtant Rome a tearful eye,
And ſhuddering ſeem to hear the clath of Albion's blades.
Revenge will hunt your raſhly daring band
To your own viny hills and olive land;
Our barks ſhall ride your hoſtile main,
Our ſcythed chariots ſhake your hateful plain.
With burning breaſts the warriors catch the ſound,
And raiſe a yell profound,
And claſh their gory ſhields,
And point with ſinewy arm Heſperia's ſouthern fields.

The ROYAL SOLDIER.

Sung at Vauxhall by Mrs. Franklin.

THOUGH Pallas, clad in ſhining arms,
May ſtrike the world with dread alarms,
And creſted Mars uplift the ſpear,
Britannia ſtill has nought to fear:
The royal ſoldier's born to ſhew
What 'tis to prove a Briton's foe.
Then hail the day that gave him birth.
For gallant York has prov'd his worth!

On Pruſſia's plains, the vet'ran king
Thus taught the Britiſh youth to ſing:
"O haſte, Bellona, haſte the day
When England may have cauſe to ſay,
My royal ſoldier, bravely ſhew
What 'tis to prove a Briton's foe."
Then hail the day, &c.

To Pruſſia's princes oft is cried,
"A nation's boaſt, a kingdom' pride;
Bear witneſs to the vows I ſwear,
My country's good ſhall be my care:
Thy royal ſoldier yet ſhall ſhew
What 'tis to prove a Briton's foe."
Then hail the day, &c.

Proud Valenciennes a hoſt of foes
Could, truly nobly brave, oppoſe;
Till Britain's champion took the field,
And forc'd the haughty Gauls to yield:
The royal ſoldier's born to ſhew
What 'tis to prove a Briton's foe.
Then hail the day, &c.

EPIGRAMME ſur la MORT de MARAT.

MARAT eſt mort! la France encore reſpire:
Marat eſt mort! Satan, prens garde à toi
Car, aujourdhui s'il entre en ton empire,
Demain, pour ſur, tu ne feras plus roi.

TRANSLATION.

Infernal king, beware! a mortal foe
Deſcends to viſit thy dread realms below:
Elſe from thy loins he'll ſtrip the regal coat
And quikly turn thee to a Sans Culotte.

FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

From the LONDON GAZETTE.

WHITEHALL, *Sept.* 28.

BY a diſpatch received laſt night from the Right Hon. Lord Mulgrave, dated Toulon, September 8, 1793, it appears that his lordſhip had arrived there on the 6th, and had been deſired by Lord Hood to take upon himſelf the command of the troops until his majeſty's pleaſure ſhould be known. It further appears, that one of the advanced poſts, appearing to be out of the regular military line of defence, it had been determined to evacuate it; but, before the order for carrying that meaſure into execution arrived, Carteaux, the general of the republican army, (who had collected about five thouſand men from Marſeilles and Nice to harraſs this garriſon,) attacked the poſt, and drove back the Spaniards who had occupied it, with the loſs of thirty-five men killed, two officers and twenty men wounded, one officer and fifteen men miſſing. Of two prieſts, who went out after the action to give abſolution to the wounded, one has been found murdered, and the other is miſſing. The corps at this poſt conſiſted of four hundred Spaniſh troops, and one hundred and fifty of the French national guards from Toulon. A detachment of the Britiſh brigade were marched out of Toulon to cover their retreat; which ſervice they performed without difficulty, having only one private ſoldier wounded.

WHITEHALL, *October* 12.

By accounts from the Right Hon. Sir William Hamilton, K. B. his majeſty's envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary at the court of Naples, dated the 17th of September, it appears, that on the 11th, Capt. Nelſon, in his majeſty's ſhip Agamemnon, arrived there with diſpatches from Lord Hood, dated off Toulon the 27th of Auguſt, and a letter, of the 31ſt, from Lord Hugh Conway, who had left Toulon in the poſſeſſion of Lord Hood, and met with Captain Nelſon at ſea; that Sir William Hamilton having communicated this intelligence to Gen. Acton, two thouſand of his Sicilian majeſty's beſt troops were embarked on the 16th on-board of two line-of-battle ſhips, two frigates, two corvettes, and one Neapolitan tranſport veſſel. That a Spaniſh frigate, returning to Toulon, had likewiſe taken ſome of the troops on-board; that three more battalions were that night to embark at Gaeta, on-board of two Neapolitan frigates, two brigantines, and nine large polacres. That, in a week or ten days, the Neapolitan government were to ſend off to Toulon the remaining ſhips, and two thouſand more men, with thirty pieces of regimental artillery, and plenty of proviſions; and that, ſhould the wind remain as it then was, thoſe ſuccours might reach Toulon in five days or ſooner.

[This Gazette contains his majeſty's order in council allowing trade to be carried on to and with the city and port of Toulon, and the dependencies thereof, notwithſtanding the war between Great Britain and France, under certain regulations therein mentioned.]

WHITEHALL, *October* 23.

The diſpatches, of which the following are extracts and copies, were received on Sunday laſt, at the office of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department:

Toulon, September 26, 1793.

On the morning of the 18th of this month the enemy opened two maſqued batteries, one of three, the other of two guns, at the head of the inner harbour, at la Petite Garenne. An inceſſant fire was kept up during the whole of the day between the batteries of the enemy and a gun-boat and French frigate manned by Engliſh ſeamen, which had been placed near the Poudriere for the defence of the head of the harbour, and to cover the fort of Malbouſquet towards the water; that fort fired occaſionally at the enemy's batteries with ſome effect, although they were covered on that ſide by a grove of pine-trees. On the 19th, the enemy opened a freſh battery, to left of the others, at Les Gaux, and his majeſty's ſhip St. George, with a ſecond gun-boat, being brought into the Petite Rade, a cannonade continued during the whole day, and towards evening the batteries of the enemy were ſilenced; but one of the gun-boats had ſuffered ſo much that ſhe was towed off, and ſhe ſunk the next morning, the officers and men having been taken out of her.

It became neceſſary to collect a force to occupy La Graſſe; I took, therefore, fifty men from fort De la Malgue, the ſtrongeſt and leaſt expoſed of our poſts, and, by leaving but one relief for the duties of Toulon, we were enabled to collect three hundred and fifty Spaniards and one hundred and fifty Britiſh, excluſive of officers and non-commiſſioned officers; the Spaniſh under

under the command of Colonel Don Rafael Echavuru, and the Britiſh troops under the command of Captain Brereton of the 30th regiment. The detachment embarked from Toulon on the 20th, at 12 o'clock at night; Admiral Gravina and myſelf, with all the Spaniſh colonels of the garriſon, and ſome French engineers, attending to place the troops in the poſts they were to occupy. We proceeded acroſs the harbour, and landed at about two o'clock in the morning of the 21ſt, at Fort Balaguier, and marched immediately forward to reconnoitre the heights De la Graſſe, which conſiſt of a ridge, divided at the top by three diſtinct knolls, covered with wood, with ſmall dips or vallies between each, the whole riſing very conſiderably inland, the ridge terminating with a rapid deſcent at the weſtern extremity, which commands a complete view of the whole extent of the enemy's poſition to the weſtward of Toulon.

It was determined to take poſt on the loweſt and eaſternmoſt knoll, which is about five hundred yards from the landing-place. Having diſtributed the troops into the beſt poſition the poſt would admit of, Admiral Gravina returned with me before noon to Toulon, to order the neceſſary ſupplies for the troops, and ſome guns for the defence of the poſt. Colonel Don Rafael Echavuru remaining with the command of the poſt, and Capt. Brereton with the command of the Britiſh troops, under him. At about five o'clock in the afternoon the enemy advanced along the upper knolls of the Hauteur de Graſſe, to the number, as we have ſince learnt, of about ſeven hundred men; and, having driven in the picquets, began an attack under cover of the woods, forming themſelves upon a ſteep aſcent, in front of the poſt, in three lines, ſo as to have the advantage of a triple fire; from which our troops were in ſome degree protected by trunks of trees, which had been felled, and placed to ſerve as a breaſt-work. The firing continued for an hour, when the enemy were repulſed, with the loſs, on the part of the Britiſh, of one rank and file killed, one captain and three rank and file wounded, (I am happy to ſay none of them dangerouſly;) and of the Spaniards one rank and file killed, and ſeven wounded. The enemy, by accounts we have ſince received from deſerters, loſt twelve killed, and one colonel and twenty-three wounded. This attempt of the enemy ſerved to convince the Spaniſh and French officers of the neceſſity of occupying the advanced poſition at the weſtern extremity of La Hauteur de Graſſe; a Spaniſh colonel was ſent at day-break, to take poſſeſſion of it.

I ſhould not render the juſtice which I owe to the ſmall body of Britiſh troops under my command, if I did not repreſent the cheerfulneſs and alacrity with which they ſuffer inceſſant fatigue in poſts in which they muſt be conſidered as being conſtantly on duty, and every hour liable to attack; I can however venture to ſay, that (unleſs ſickneſs ſhould be the conſequence of this fatigue) our preſent ſtate of defence is ſuch as may give reaſonable grounds to be confident of the ſecurity of the place.

The conſtant fire kept up by the enemy for the laſt four days, has wounded one lieutenant of the navy, one ſeaman, and four rank and file. I have to regret that Lieutenant Newnham, of the navy, who commanded in Fort Pomet, and whoſe vigilance, activity, and reſources, ſupplied almoſt every local defect of his poſts, is neceſſarily removed for a time from the command, on account of the wound which he yeſterday received in the thigh. Lieutenant Tupper, of his majeſty's ſhip Windſor Caſtle, is ſent to take the command.

Return of Britiſh Killed and Wounded, on September 21, 1793.

Total. 1 rank and file killed; 2 officers, 1 ſeaman, 7 rank and file, wounded.

Captain Smith of the 25th regiment, and Lieutenant Newnham of the royal navy, wounded, (ſince dead.)

MULGRAVE,
Acting Brigadier-General.

SIR, *Toulon, Sept. 27, 1793.*

Since I cloſed my diſpatch to you this day the firſt diviſion of Neapolitan troops came into the harbour, conſiſting of two thouſand men, all in perfect health, convoyed by two ſhips of ſeventy-four guns each, two frigates, and two ſloops; they have been eleven days on their paſſage; two thouſand more troops were to ſail in three days after that of their departure; and a third diviſion alſo of two thouſand men were to ſail in twenty days from the day on which the firſt diviſion ſailed. After the confident manner in which I have ventured to aſſure you that no impreſſion was likely to be made on our poſts, inadequately garriſoned as they were by our originally-ſmall body, I need hardly expreſs the comfortable ſecurity I feel with our laſt reinforcements.

I have the honour to be, &c.
MULGRAVE.

SIR, *Toulon, Sept. 30, 1793.*

The ſquadron under Admiral Gell having been delayed by contrary winds, I

have the opportunity of informing you, in addition to my laſt diſpatches, that, on the 28th inſtant, the firſt diviſion of the Neapolitan troops diſembarked under the command of Brigadier-general Pignatelli. The troops are in perfect health, and are a fine body of men, and well appointed.

The detachment of the King of Sardinia's troops, conſiſts entirely of grenadiers and chaſſeurs, and are of the beſt of his Sardinian majeſty's troops. I have great confidence in the zeal and willingneſs expreſſed, both by the officers and ſoldiers of this corps.

I have the honour to be, &c.

MULGRAVE,

Acting Brigadier-General.

Right Hon. Henry Dundas, &c. &c. &c.

[It is material to know the ſituation of Fort Pharon, which is frequently ſpoken of in the news from Toulon, This fort is to the weſt of Toulon, upon a ſteep hill, and is of very difficult acceſs. Twenty-four twenty-four pounders may be mounted there, and twelve hundred men may be ſtationed in barracks. It commands the forts of St. Catherine and l'Artigues, as well as the towns of La Valette and Toulon, and even Fort La Malgue. It is therefore not ſurpriſing that the Carmagnoles place ſo much importance upon taking it, or the Engliſh in preſerving it.]

WHITEHALL, *October* 22.

Laſt night the Right Hon. Lord George Conway arrived at the office of the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, his Majeſty's Principal Secretary of State for foreign Affairs, with a Diſpatch from the Earl of Yarmouth, of which the following is an extract:

Weiſſembourg, October 14, 1793.
Auſtrian Head Quarters.

Yeſterday morning at three o'clock, General Wurmſer made his projected attack upon the lines of the Lautre, on various points at the ſame time. I have the ſatisfaction to ſay that he is in poſſeſſion of every part of them, Lautrebourg ſurrendered, without any conditions, between three and four in the evening, after being evacuated by the enemy, who, from the prodigious number of redoubts of which they were in poſſeſſion, and the natural ſtrength of the poſition, might have held out a ſiege of ſeveral days.

This town reſiſted ſome time longer. It is ſurrounded by a large ditch, and was defended by redoubts, from which the French cannonaded the Auſtrians for ſeveral hours. A part of the town was burned in the courſe of the ſtruggle; and the French before they retreated, ſet fire to their magazines, both here and at Alſtadt.

In other parts of this very complicated operation, in which ſix different columns had diſtinct plans to execute, great ſucceſs attended the Auſtrians. They ſucceſſively carried by aſſault all the different redoubts which had been conſtructed in the front of the French camps, of which the principal one fell into their hands, with all their tents ſtanding, and ſeveral caiſſons, nine ſtandards, and twenty-ſix cannons of very great calibre. As theſe different actions are but juſt over, and the Auſtrian corps are very remote from each other, it is impoſſible for me to tranſmit to your lordſhip any account of the killed, wounded, or taken, on either ſide. The army has been fourteen hours under arms, almoſt continually engaged in a very active purſuit, and often expoſed to a moſt tremendous fire.

Right Hon. Lord Grenville.

WHITEHALL, *October* 5.

Extract of a Letter from the Earl of Eglin, his Majeſty's Envoy Extraordinary at the Court of Bruſſels, to the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, his Majeſty's principal Secretary of State for foreign Affairs, dated Haumont, September 29, 1793.

It is with the utmoſt ſatisfaction that I have it in my power to inform your lordſhip of the complete ſucceſs with which his ſerene highneſs Prince Cobourg has this day paſſed the Sambre, driven into the intrenched camp of Maubeuge all the detached corps of French, and formed the inveſtment of the camp and fortreſs.

The army was in march at day-break. General Clairfait's column croſſed at Brelaimort, and, having met with very little reſiſtance, was, in a ſhort time, in the poſition, which according to the diſpoſition it was meant to take, between Aulnois and Baſchamp.

The column of General Colloredo croſſed at Pont and Haumont; and ſo effectually were the enemy ſurpriſed in the camp of St. Remy Malbari, that their tents and baggage were taken. The rout ſoon began, but the purſuit was interrupted by great inequalities in the ground, and, accordingly, the loſs of the French in killed and wounded, and in priſoners, did not exceed the number of two hundred men. The Auſtrians, however, took nine pieces of cannon. General Colloredo has pitched his camp between Haumont and the Bois de Beaufort, both of which he occupies.

General de la Tour, croſſed the Sambre between Jeumont and Morpeut, and with a degree of ſucceſs ſimilar to that of General Colloredo's column, as he ſurpriſed the enemy's camp at Bequignies.

He

He took ſome priſoners, and two pieces of cannon; and, as his march was not much impeded by the nature of the country, he killed three hundred men. He has advanced to Cerſontain, where he has taken up his poſition; he occupies the foreſt of Bonpere, near Ronſies, and his left flank extends by Terrere le Petite, towards the corps of General Colloredo, with whom he is at this moment forming a juncture. Colonel Seckendorff, who marched from Charleroy, has advanced without much reſiſtance to Collnet.

Prince Cobourg's head quarters are at Haumont.

In a word, every object propoſed in the enterpriſe has been obtained, and with the loſs of fifty men killed and wounded: two or three officers are ſlightly wounded.

WHITEHALL, *October* 22.

A Letter from Sir James Murray, Adjutant-general to the Forces under the command of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, was received this evening by the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his Majeſty's principal Secretary of State for the Home Department, of which the following is a copy:

SIR, *Engel Fonſaine, Oct.* 18.

I had the honour of informing you, in my laſt diſpatch, that his Royal Highneſs, at the earneſt requeſt of the Prince of Cobourg, had marched with a part of the troops under his command, for this place. They arrived here upon the 16th. The prince, being aquainted with his royal highneſs's intention, had been enabled to draw from thence four battalions, to ſtrengthen his other poſts; a fifth battalion followed thoſe, upon his royal highneſs's arrival.

The enemy, having collected in extraordinary numbers, attacked the corps under the command of General Clairfayt, which was poſted with its right near Birlemont, and its left near the village of Wattigwies, upon the 15th and 16th. Upon the former day the left wing of the enemy was entirely defeated: having advanced into the plain which lay upon that ſide between the two armies, they were charged by the Imperial cavalry, and driven back, with great ſlaughter and the loſs of twelve pieces of cannon. The attack which they made upon the left of the Auſtrians was more obſtinately ſupported; they were, however, finally repulſed.

Upon the 16th the enemy, having drawn the greateſt part of their force to the right, again attacked the left of General Clairfayt's corps, and the village of Wattigwies.

They could upon this ſide approach within cannon-ſhot of the Auſtrians, under cover of an immenſe wood called the *Haye d'Aveſnes*; which, when they were repulſed, ſecured their retreat. They brought a great quantity of heavy artillery to the edge of this wood, under the protection of which they attacked the village. The utmoſt firmneſs and bravery were diſplayed by the Auſtrian troops upon this occaſion. The enemy were ſeveral times repulſed with great loſs; they were repeatedly driven from the village after they had carried it; but being enabled, by great ſuperiority of numbers, to bring continually freſh troops to the point of attack, they at laſt ſucceeded in maintaining poſſeſſion of that poſt.

The communication between General Clairfayt's corps and that of General La Tour, which obſerved the intrenched camp near Maubeuge, being by this means cut off, it was judged neceſſary by the Prince of Cobourg to abandon the poſition which had been taken for the purpoſe of inveſting Maubeuge; the army repaſſed the Sambre in the night without the ſmalleſt loſs. Lieutenant-general Benzowſky, who commanded a detached corps upon the left of the army, defeated a corps which was oppoſed to him, killed a great number of the enemy, took four hundred priſoners and eleven pieces of cannon. Count Haddick, who was detached by General La Tour, likewiſe gained a conſiderable advantage, penetrated to Sorbe Chateau, and took three pieces of cannon.

In the two engagements the Auſtrians took twenty-four pieces of cannon, and two howitzers, without the loſs of one upon their part. They have had about two thouſand men killed and wounded. There can be no doubt that the loſs of the enemy has been much more conſiderable. The Auſtrians now occupy the left bank of the Sambre. No certain accounts have been yet received of the further motions of the enemy. I am &c.

(Signed) JAMES MURRAY.

MADRID, *October* 2.

Intelligence has been received here, that on the 22d of September, General Ricardos obtained a complete victory over the French near Truillas. The only particulars yet known are, that the enemy began the attack, in five columns, at ſeven o'clock in the morning; that they were repulſed and defeated by the Spaniſh cavalry, and by the columns of infantry which were ordered out, under the command of Don Juan Courten and the Count de la Union; that the loſs of the Spaniards was very ſmall, but that of the enemy was eſtimated, on the whole, at five or ſix thouſand men, including about fifteen

fifteen hundred priſoners and many more killed, a great havoc having been made by the grape-ſhot and ſide-arms; and that ten pieces of cannon, ſix cart-loads of muſquets, and a quantity of baggage, had been taken. The number of the enemy was reported to be twenty-three or twenty-four thouſand ſtrong, though by ſome eſtimated at no more than twenty thouſand.

DEUX PONTS, *Sept.* 27.

Yeſterday General Kalkreuth ordered an attack to be made upon the French camp of Bliescaſtle, which he carried after a cannonade of two hours. The French retreated towards Franenberg.—We alſo have advice that Prince Hohenloe had advanced to cut off the communication between the French at Franenberg and thoſe in the camp at Schweigen, or rather to execute the plan of putting this camp between two fires. We are informed that the Duke of Brunſwick made a movement this morning to the right of Schweigen.

Yeſterday, after the capture of the French camp of Bleiſcaſtle, the French, who occupied the heights of Watweiler, abandoned that ſituation, as likewiſe the heights of Mittelbach, and thoſe in the proximity of Hornbach. Soon after they totally quitted the environs of Mittelbach and Reinſchweiler. And we have juſt now received the important intelligence, that the French this afternoon evacuated Hornbach and the camp of Schweigen.

BASIL, SWITZERLAND, *Sept.* 29.

This place was greatly alarmed on the morning of Tueſday the 17th, by the generale being beat. The cauſe proved to be an attempt of the French at Huningue to croſs the Rhine upon rafts. Theſe rafts, carrying about fifteen hundred men, were launched from Huningue under cover of the fire from all the guns of the place facing the Rhine, although not a ſingle Auſtrian was to be ſeen on the oppoſite ſide.

The French, in conſequence of the reports that had reached them of a large detachment of the Auſtrians having been ordered to Fribourg and Briſac, and of their having marched, conceived that they might croſs the Rhine without oppoſition, and plunder the marquiſate. The Auſtrian troops which had been left, perceiving the intention of the French, concealed themſelves in the woods and ditches, and lay in wait to receive them.

About eight in the morning of the 7th, five hundred Frenchmen embarked on three rafts, and puſhed off in high ſpirits. Theſe were however ſoon damped by one of their rafts running on a ſand-bank adjoining a ſmall iſlet upon the Swiſs territory on which was an officer's guard. The French were obliged to betake themſelves to the water, and, as they waded on ſhore, were taken priſoners to the number of one hundred and twenty. Another of the rafts parted and went to pieces in the middle of the Rhine, and every man on it periſhed; and the fate of the third was not much better—ſuch of thoſe on it as were not drowned were cut down by the Auſtrian cavalry as they landed, and nineteen were made priſoners.

The enemy at the ſame time attempted a landing at two or three other places, but were every where received in the ſame manner. The French had on that day about eight or nine hundred in all taken priſoners, and at leaſt ſix hundred were drowned.

PARIS, *October* 21.

The Queen of France ſuffered under the axe of the guillotine on Wedneſday laſt the 16th inſtant; after having been condemned on the preceding day by the national convention, as guilty of having been acceſſary to and having co-operated in different manœuvres againſt the liberty of France;—of having entertained a correſpondence with the enemies of the republic;—of having participated in a plot tending to kindle civil war in the interior of the republic, by arming citizens againſt each other.

When the ſentence of the national convention was read to the widow of Capet, ſhe caſt down her eyes, and did not again lift them up. "Have you nothing to reply upon the determination of the law?" ſaid the preſident to her. "Nothing," ſhe replied. "And you, officious defenders?" "Our miſſion is fulfilled with reſpect to the widow Capet," ſaid they.

The execution took place at half paſt eleven o'clock in the forenoon. The whole armed force in Paris was on foot, from the Palace of Juſtice to the Place de la Revolution. The ſtreets were lined by two very cloſe rows of armed citizens. As ſoon as the ci-devant queen left the conciergerie, to aſcend the ſcaffold, the multitude, which was aſſembled in the courts and the ſtreets, cried out bravo, in the midſt of plaudits. Marie Antoinette had on a white looſe dreſs, and her hands were tied behind her back. She looked firmly round her on all ſides. She was accompanied by the ci-devant curate of St. Landry, a conſtitutional prieſt, and on the ſcaffold preſerved her natural dignity of mind.

After the execution, three young perſons dipped their handkerchiefs in her blood. They were all immediately arreſted.

LIST

LIST of PRIZES, continued from page 160.

The ſmall ſquadron at Gibraltar, conſiſting of one fifty-gun ſhip, three frigates, and two ſloops, have already ſhared one hundred and forty thouſand pounds prize-money.

The Hebe, a French whaler, has been taken by Capt. James Flemming, and ſent into St. Helen's.

The Birmingham, Foſter, from Maryland to Amſterdam, is taken by the Oporto, Hamilton, of Liverpool.

The Flying Fiſh, ſloop of war, has taken a French ſchooner, and ſent her to New Providence.

A French ſhip laden with oil, &c. from the South Sea fiſhery, or coaſt of Brazil, has been taken by the Buſtler privateer.

The Fox privateer, of Liverpool, Capt. Fletcher, has taken and ſent into Scilly Le Maitre, a French ſhip from Bourdeaux to Nantz, laden with wine, oil, &c.

The Phillip privateer, Capt. Stephens, has re-taken and ſent into Liverpool, the Sarah, Capt. Grant, from Jamaica to London.

The Powerful man of war has brought in the Counteſs Trautſmandorf, a French prize of four hundred tons, from Pondicherry, laden with a valuable cargo of bale-goods, &c. She put into St. Helena in diſtreſs with only half a butt of water and one day's proviſions; ſhe is valued at ſixty thouſand pounds.—The above prize was, we underſtand, taken at anchor; in conſequence of which a claim is lodged to the prize as *a droit* of the admiralty.

The Apollo letter of marque, captain Fanſhaw, belonging to Guernſey, has taken and carried into that place a large French bark, laden with flour, which ſhe fell in with at ſea, having only two hands on board; the others had taken to the long-boat, and deſerted her.

A ſhip from Matinique, loaden with ſugar, coffee, &c. is taken and ſent into St. Kitt's by his Majeſty's ſchooner Berbice.

The Mary privateer, of Liverpool, has taken, within one day's ſail of Havre, a ſhip from Guadaloupe for that place, loaded with ſugar, coffee, &c. and carried her into Liverpool.

His majeſty's cutter Seaflower, Lieut. John Webber, arrived in Carliſle Bay on the 30th of Auguſt and had captured and carried in there La Victoria Indiaman, La Mirabeau Guineaman, and left the Mercury on the coaſt.

A part of Lord Hood's ſquadron has taken off Genoa, the Modeſte, a French frigate, which had ſallied out of that port for the purpoſe of making prizes.

His majeſty's ſloop Rattleſnake, Capt. Alexander Mouat, has taken and carried into St. Kitt's, La Jenny, from Point à Petre, Guadaloupe, to Bayonne, laden with ſugar, coffee, cotton, and elephants' teeth, valued at fifteen thouſand pounds.—La Jenny is a letter of marque, of ten guns, and had captured a Spaniſh ſhip on the 28th of Auguſt, and had her ranſom on board for twenty thouſand pieces of eight. The Rattleſnake, in lat. 19. north, long. 63. 28. weſt, fell in with the Venus, an American ſhip; and was going in chace of twenty French ſhips that had run out of Martinique.

The Gabriel Cherie, Chemen, of Bourdeaux; Hazard, Barnave, of Havre; and Petite Amedée, Andonard, of Honfleur; are taken by the Brothers, Williams, of Briſtol, on the coaſt of Africa.

The Creſcent, of thirty-ſix guns, Capt. Saumarez, has taken the French frigate Re-union, of thirty-ſix guns, after an action of more than two hours and a half. This engagement took place on Sunday laſt near Cherbourg, at the diſtance of leſs than a league and a half from the ſhore. The loſs on board the French frigate was one hundred and eighteen in killed and wounded, and not a ſingle man hurt on board the Creſcent by the fire of the enemy; one man unfortunately had his thigh broke by an accident. This extraordinary circumſtance muſt have ariſen from the French frigate directing her whole fire againſt the rigging of the Creſcent. On taking poſſeſſion of the Re-union, it appeared that the fire from the Creſcent had killed and wounded three ſeamen near the powder-magazine. An immenſe concourſe of perſons who had aſſembled on the ſhore witneſſed the engagement, and had the mortification to perceive the triumph of the Britiſh flag over their republican colours. The Creſcent has arrived with her prize at Spithead.

Ships taken by the French.

The America French man of war of 74 guns, has taken a ſhip from Savannah to Cadiz, and ſent her into Boſton.

A French privateer called the Roland, lately fitted out at Boſton, has taken the Greyhound ſchooner.

The Preſident, Smith, from Hull to Baltimore, is taken by the Moſelle, French privateer, and ſent to Boſton.

The Thought cutter, Harding Shaw commander, was captured the 3d of September by a frigate of forty-two guns.

The Hope, privateer, Capt. Hall, of Liverpool, is taken by a French lugger.

MILITARY

MILITARY PROMOTIONS, from the LONDON GAZETTE, of *Oct.* 19.

War-Office, Oct. 18.

His majeſty has been pleaſed to appoint General Henry Seymour Conway, his Royal Highneſs William Duke of Glouceſter, K. G. and Sir George Howard, K. B. to be FIELD MARSHALS.

As likewiſe Lieutenant-generals Robert Melville, Mariſcoe Frederic, Robert Dalrymple Horn Elphinſtone, James Johnſton, James Johnſton, Charles Marquis of Drogheda, K. St. P. Sir William Auguſtus Pitt, K. B. Lord Adam Gordon, Hon. Francis Maitland, Archibald Earl of Eglintoune, Hunt Walſh, Guy Lord Dorcheſter, K. B. Sir Charles Thompſon, Bart, and K. B. Robert Clerk, Robert Cuninghame, Hon. Sir William Howe, K. B. Lord George Henry Lenox, Henry Fletcher, John Hale, Sir Robert Boyd, K. B. Sir Henry Clinton, K. B. Charles Lord Southampton, Bernard Hale, Francis Craig, Hugh Duke of Northumberland, K. G. Wm. Tayler, Charles Marquis Cornwallis, K. G. to be GENERALS.

As likewiſe Major-generals Sir Thomas Shirley, Bart. Joſeph Brome, Patrick Tonyn, Gabriel Chriſtie, John Reid, Charles Roſs, Sir William Green, Bart. George Scott, Charles O'Hara, Robert Sandford, Loftus Anthony Tottenham, William Rowley, Harry Trelawny, Peter Bathurſt, Hon. William Gordon, John Maunſel, Stewart Douglas, Robert Preſcott, Hon. William Harcourt, Henry Earl of Carhampton, William Dalrymple, William Picton, Sir Hector Munro, K. B. Hon. Edward Stopford, Hon. William Hervey, Weſt Hyde, John Fletcher Campbell, Frances Laſcelles, James Murray, Samuel Townſend, Sir William Medows, K. B. and Thomas Oſbert Mordaunt, to be LIEUTENANT-GENERALS.

As likewiſe Colonels John Lind, William Shireff, William Grinfield, Samuel Hulſe, Albemarle Bertie, Charles Vallancey, Thomas Pigot, Hon. John Thomas De Burgh, Sir James Steuart, Bart. Thomas Carleton, James Marſh, Cavendiſh Liſter, Charles Leigh, James Ogilvie, William Roberts, Robert Kingſton, Sir Robert Laurie, Bart. John Tupper, William Martin, John Archer, William Edmeſton, David Home, Hugh Debbieg, Montgomery Agnew, Thomas Jones, James Stewart, Alexander Earl of Balcarras, Hon. Charles Stewart, Cornelius Cuyler, Thomas Dundas, Charles Earl of Harrington, Hon. Richard Fitzpatrick. Neſbit Balfour, Edmund Stephens, Thomas Trigge, Francis Earl of Moira, Peter Craig, and Benjamin Stchelin, to be MAJOR-GENERALS.

As likewiſe Lieutenant-colonels Robert Maſon Lewis, Thomas Glyn, William Colquohoun, Welbore Ellis Doyle, Cha. Horneck, Alexander Roſs, John Whyte, Charles Graham, Andrew John Drummond, Thomas Swanton, John St. Leger, Chriſtopher Maxwell, Henry Bowyer, Richard Betteſworth, Arent Schuyler de Peyſter, John William Egerton, Peter Hunter, William Maxwell, George Lord Herbert, John Earl of Chatham, George Campbell, Alexander Campbell, William Viſcount Fielding, and Richard Symes, to be COLONELS.

To be AIDES DE CAMP to his majeſty, Lieutenant-colonels William Morſhead, Francis Dundas, and Hamilton Maxwell.

As likewiſe Majors William Anſtruther, James Stevenſon, Boulter Johnſtone, William Swinburne, John Doyle, William Brady, John Dormer Alcock, Patrick Wauchope, James Higginſon, Baldwin Leighton, Arthur Browne, Patrick Sinclair, John Elford, Benjamin Fith, David Campbell, M. B. St. Leger Keating, John Coffin, Hon. George Hanger, Richard Armſtrong, John Calandar, Archibald Campbell, ſen. and John Murray, to be LIEUTENANT-COLONELS.

War-Office, Oct. 19.

Firſt regiment of foot guards. Captain the Hon. Edmund Phipps, to be captain of a company, by purchaſe, vice Talbot, who retires.

GARRISONS.

Rev. Edward Drewe to be chaplain to the garriſon of Sheerneſs, vice Richards, deceaſed.

STAFF.

Lieutenant-colonels Charles Lenox to be quarter-maſter-general to the forces ſerving at Toulon and Provence.

Haviland Le Meſurier, gent. to be aſſiſtant commiſſary-general of ſtores, proviſions, and forage, to the forces ſerving on the continent under the command of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, vice Gould, deceaſed.

Office of Ordnance, Oct. 17.

Royal regiment of artillery. Samuel Baker, gent. to be ſecond lieutenant, vice Fead, promoted; Benjamin Fenwick, gent. to be ſecond lieutenant, vice Watſon, promoted.

Corps of royal engineers. Howard Elphinſtone, gent. from the royal regiment of artillery, to be ſecond lieutenant, vice Stewart, promoted; Elias Durnford, gent. from the royal regiment of artillery, to be ſecond lieutenant, vice Brand, deceaſed.

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

THE FOLLY OF INTRIGUE.

ALBOINUS king of Lombardy, having fallen in love with Roſamund, a young, beautiful, and accompliſhed, virgin, the daughter of a neighbouring prince, who was his mortal enemy, he ſet on foot every contrivance and intrigue, by means of emiſſaries, to get her into his power. But vain were the artifices of thoſe employed about her perſon, either by perſuaſion, or the more powerful temptation of regal dignity, to prevail upon her to leave her father's court. Filial attachment, and the diſguſting reflection of forming an alliance with the enemy of her father's houſe, put a decided negative upon the moſt preſſing ſolicitations. Provoked beyond meaſure with this diſappointment, Alboinus inſtantly made war upon the Gepidæ, over whom the father of Roſamund reigned as ſovereign. Taking him by ſurpriſe, he killed him with his own hand, and made a cup of his ſkull, out of which he drank at all his public banquets. Many perſons of diſtinction in the caſtle were taken priſoners, and amongſt the reſt the beauteous Roſamund, whom Alboinus forced to his bed, and afterwards married, making this the ſole condition of ſparing the lives of her relations.

Not long after the celebration of his nuptials, as he was one day feaſting at Verona with his chief favourites and principal officers, Alboinus, in the height of his mirth, ſent for the queen, and, filling the deteſted cup, commanded her to drink merrily with her father. Roſamund, ſtruck with horror, hurried out of the room, and, highly incenſed againſt her huſband for thus barbarouſly triumphing over the misfortunes of her family, reſolved, at all events, to make him pay dear for ſuch an inhuman and affronting indignity. Accordingly, ſhe diſcovered her intention to Helmichild the king's ſhield-bearer, a youth of great boldneſs and intrepidity. Helmichild peremptorily refuſed to imbrue his hands in the blood of his ſovereign, or to be any way acceſſary to his death; and in this reſolution he perſiſted till he was, by a ſhameful ſtratagem, forced by the queen to a compliance: for ſhe, knowing that he carried on an intrigue with one of her ladies, placed herſelf one night in her bed, and, receiving the youth, indulged him, as if ſhe had been his own miſtreſs, in his amorous deſires; which ſhe had no ſooner done, than, diſcovering herſelf to the deceived lover, ſhe told him that he muſt now either put the king to death or be put to death by him. Helmichild, well appriſed, that, after what he had done, his ſafety depended upon the death of the king, engaged in the treaſon which he otherwiſe abhorred. One day, therefore, while Alboinus was repoſing in his chamber after dinner, Helmichild, with ſome others whom he had made privy to his deſign, breaking in unexpectedly, fell upon the king with their daggers. Alboinus, ſtarting up at their firſt coming in, laid hold of his ſword, which he had always by him; but having in vain attempted to draw it, the queen having beforehand faſtened it to the ſcabbard, he defended himſelf for ſome time with a footſtool; but was in the end overpowered, and diſpatched with many wounds.

Roſamund had promiſed to Helmichild, that, as ſoon as he had diſpatched the king, ſhe would marry him, and, with her perſon, beſtow upon him the kingdom of the Lombards. The firſt part of her promiſe ſhe immediately performed; but was ſo far from being able to beſtow the crown upon him, that both were obliged to ſave themſelves by flight. They fled to Longinus the exarch of Ravenna, taking with them all the jewels and treaſure of the late king. Longinus received her with the greateſt marks of friendſhip and kindneſs, and aſſured her of his protection. She had not been long in Ravenna, before the exarch, judging that a favourable opportunity now offered of making himſelf king of Italy by her means, imparted his deſign to her, and declared his intention to marry her, provided, by ſome means or other, ſhe diſpatched Helmichild.—Roſamund, highly pleaſed with the propoſal, reſolved to ſatisfy her ambition by getting rid of him whom ſhe had married in order

order to gratify her revenge. Accordingly, having prepared a ſtrong poiſon, ſhe mixed it with wine, and gave it to her huſband as he came out of the bath, and called for drink, according to his cuſtom. Helmichild had not half emptied the cup, when, by the ſudden and ſtrange operation which he felt in his bowels, he concluded what it was; and, with his ſword pointed at the queen's breaſt, compelled her to drink the reſt. The poiſon had the ſame effect on both; and they died in a few hours, leaving to mankind a memorable inſtance of the retributions of heaven, in puniſhing murder and adultery upon each other, ſolely by the hands of thoſe who were the guilty fugitives.

Similar to the above was the fate of Candaules king of Lydia, who loſt both his life and his kingdom by the moſt unpardonable folly. Candaules had a wife whom he paſſionately loved, and believed the moſt beautiful of her ſex. He extolled her charms to Gyges his favourite, whom he uſed to entruſt with his moſt important affairs; and, the more to convince him of her beauty, reſolved to ſhew her to him quite naked: he accordingly placed him in the porch of the chamber where the queen uſed to undreſs when ſhe went to bed, ordering him to retire after he ſhould have ſeen her, and take all poſſible care not to be obſerved. But, notwithſtanding all the caution he could uſe, ſhe plainly diſcovered him going out; and, tho' ſhe did not doubt but it was her huſband's contrivance, yet ſhe paſſed that night in a ſeeming tranquillity, ſuppreſſing her reſentment till next morning, when ſhe ſent for Gyges, and reſolutely told him that he muſt either by his death atone for the criminal action he had been guilty of, or put to death Candaules the contriver of it, and receive both her and the kingdom of Lydia for his reward. Gyges at firſt earneſtly begged of the queen that ſhe would not drive him to the neceſſity of ſuch a choice. But, finding that he could not prevail with her, and that he muſt either kill his maſter or die himſelf, he choſe the former part of the alternative. Being led by the queen to the ſame place where her huſband had poſted him the night before, he ſtabbed the king while he was aſleep, married the queen, and took poſſeſſion of the kingdom, in which he was confirmed by the anſwer of the Delphic oracle. The Lydians having taken up arms to revenge the death of their prince, an agreement was made between them and the followers of Gyges, that if the oracle ſhould declare him to be lawful king of Lydia he ſhould be permitted to reign; if not, he ſhould reſign the crown to the Heraclidæ. The anſwer of the oracle proving favourable to Gyges, he was univerſally acknowledged for lawful king of Lydia, as having been forced into that ſituation by the imprudence of Candaules, who was the ſole cauſe of the intrigue.

In the annals of modern gallantry, the reader would ſcarce expect to find, that an act ſo ridiculous and indelicate as that of Candaules had lately been put in practice. True it is, however, that, only a few years ago, Sir Richard Worſley underwent the fatigue of lifting up a gentleman upon his own ſhoulders, to enable him to peep over the ſide of a bathing-houſe, to view the ſymmetry of Lady Worſley entirely naked; merely from the vanity of having it believed that his wife was the fineſt woman in the world! The event proved as diſhonourable to Sir Richard as the former was fatal to the king of Lydia; and we truſt the ill effects of both will prevent ſuch indecencies from growing into faſhion.

SUFFERINGS OF JAMES BRISTOW,

BELONGING TO THE BENGAL ARTILLERY, DURING TEN YEARS CAPTIVITY WITH HYDER ALLY AND TIPPOO SAIB.

[Extracted from the "Narrative," publiſhed for the benefit of himſelf and Family.]

SOON after my arrival at Bengal, I accompanied Lieutenant Doxat, our quarter-maſter of artillery, to Pondicherry, for the purpoſe of deſtroying the French boats, that M. d'Orves, and a party of Frenchmen for Hyder's ſervice, might not effect a landing. We ſpiked ſeveral iron guns which the French

French had buried in the ſand on the beach, and had juſt broken up and ſet fire to all the boats, when the day dawned and forced us to retire, to avoid the firing from the fleet. Our camp was within two miles of the town; but, before we had proceeded half way thither, a prodigious buſtle and hurry of people, running confuſedly towards Pondicherry, announced a party of Hyder's horſe, which had interpoſed between the town and our camp. Waggons overſet, and loads of different articles, proceeding to our bazar, lay ſcattered and abandoned on the ground. Lieutenant Doxat, who inſtantly mounted his horſe, had barely paſſed a croſs-road when a party of them came ſuddenly upon me. I was inſtantly ſeized, and ſtripped of every thing I poſſeſſed. They had alſo ventured near enough to our lines to ſnatch up the ſerjeant-major of one of the ſepoy battalions, who was bathing in the front of the quarter-guard in a tank: the name of this unfortunate man was Rickman.

My ſituation from this inſtant became truly deplorable; for, having bound my arms behind me, they hurried me almoſt naked before Hyder, who was then encamped on the right flank of our army, at about five miles diſtance. Hyder's tent exhibited nothing very magnificent, except a rich Perſian carpet ſpread on the ground, and held down by four maſſy ſilver weights at the corners, ſomething in form reſembling ſugar-loaves. Several French officers were preſent; I was interrogated through one of them, who ſpoke Engliſh, with reſpect to the ſtrength and deſtination of our army; but having replied, that our troops amounted to thirty-five thouſand men, with ſeventy pieces of ordnance, the interpreter briſkly told me, "I lied; we had no ſuch thing!" Hyder was ſo exaſperated, that he kept me three days without any food, tied to the ground in the rear of his tent, which was the ſtation I conſtantly occupied during the ſeven days I remained in his camp. In this miſerable ſituation, lying bound on the bare ſand when halting, and laſhed to Rickman, the ſerjeant-major, when marching, expoſed to the weather, day and night, without any nouriſhment, I muſt inevitably have periſhed, if the humanity of my guards had not relieved me with ſome food now and then by ſtealth. On the fourth day, Hyder having encamped near Cuddelore, where the Engliſh army was entrenched, I received a viſit from Mahomed Beg a dubaſh, who propoſed to me to enter into Hyder's ſervice: but, upon my non-compliance, I was laſhed to the ſerjeant-major, and removed to Gingee, a ſmall fort on a rock. On my arrival at Gingee I was hand-cuffed, and from thence, the ſucceeding day, removed to Arcot, where my hand-cuffs were exchanged for heavy leg-irons. Prior to my remove from hence my irons were taken off, and the hand-cuffs again replaced, probably becauſe heavy fetters might retard the march to Seringapatam, to which place I was next deſtined. On the firſt of March 1781, this journey commenced, with the melancholy proſpect of never reviſiting thoſe companions from whom the chance of war had ſecluded me.

As ſoon as I was out of the fort of Arcot I diſcovered three palanquins, containing Britiſh officers in the ſame predicament with myſelf, and I ſoon learnt that they were Colonel Baillie, Captain Rumley, Lieut. Frazer, and a Mr. Skardon. Mr. Skardon's priſon had, indeed, been contiguous to mine; we had often converſed over the low wall which divided our cells, and this gentleman had aſſiſted me both with money and clothes; but he was as ignorant as myſelf of the unfortunate ſituation of the before-mentioned officers.

On our arrival at Seringapatam, Mr. Skardon was ſent to the officers priſon, but Lieut. Brumpton and Mr. M'Neal (who were carried from Arcot to Seringapatam at the ſame time with us) were lodged with us. The former of theſe two had once eſcaped from Hyder, and nearly reached Cuddelore before he was retaken; this might probably be his reaſon for confining him amongſt the ſoldiers, and treating him with more ſeverity than the reſt of the officers, at leaſt I never heard of any other. Colonel Baillie, Captain Rumley, and Lieut. Frazer, were confined by themſelves. About three hundred Europeans, moſtly taken near Tacoallum, were all ſhut up in one priſon, conſiſting

ing of a very ſpacious ſquare, with a ſhade along the wall, not unlike what is commonly termed a caravanſary. Numbers were, at the time of my arrival, afflicted with epidemical diſtempers, but neither care nor aſſiſtance was beſtowed on them; a kind of dropſical ſwelling, in particular, killed many. I aſcribe the preſervation of my life to a ſingular contrivance; having made a ſmall ball of wax as hard as I could, I applied it to my leg, and tied one of my coat-buttons ſo tight over it, that the ball forced a hole through the ſkin into the leg, in which ſituation I ſuffered it to remain for ſeveral months, preſerving a kind of conſtant iſſue.

In the month of September 1781, about ſix months after my impriſonment, the nyar, a bramin, and the commander of our guards, entered the priſon early in the morning, and ſelected fifteen of the priſoners, among whom were two young boys, drummers of the 73d regiment; ſtruck off their irons, and, without deigning to utter a word, carried them away, for the purpoſe, as I ſoon after underſtood, of circumciſing them. They reſiſted a long while, and bore very cruel treatment before they ſubmitted to this operation; nor did they ſubmit at laſt until they were ſtupified with a ſtrong opiate, which they had been forced to ſwallow.

This incident ſpread general terror amongſt the reſt of the priſoners, every one apprehending that he might be the next victim devoted to Mahometiſm; nor were our fears groundleſs, for, early in January 1782, the ſame perſons re-entered our priſon, and made a ſecond ſelection of fourteen, in which number I had the misfortune to be included. The treatment the firſt victims had undergone ſerved in ſome degree to apprize us of the inutility of reſiſtance. With horror and indignation we ſwallowed the narcotic potion and thoſe whom the doſe had no effect upon were forcibly ſeized and pinioned by ſtout caffres, whilſt the operation was performed, having previouſly ſhaved the hair off the privities in the cuſtomary manner, a ceremony which they continued to obſerve for three years. After the operation, our right ears were perforated, and ſmall ſilver rings with round knobs fixed in them, this being a mark of ſlavery amongſt the Mahometants. As ſoon as we had recovered from this diabolical ceremony, we were transferred to what is termed the tyrant's chaylah battalions (that is ſlaves); theſe are compoſed of ſuch of his own ſubjects as have been condemned to perpetual ſlavery, and ſuch unfortunate captives as he takes in war. The preſent conſiſted chiefly of boys ſurpriſed in the Carnatic, whom he accuſtomed to military exerciſe, with large ſticks, cut in the ſhape of muſquets. The taſk impoſed upon us (thoſe who refuſed being cruelly flogged) was to inſtruct theſe chaylahs in the manual exerciſe.

After we had been made what was termed Muſſulmen, we neglected no opportunity of evincing our contempt for the religion of our tormentors, and the cruel force they had employed againſt us.

Lieutenants Speediman and Rutledge were brought to priſon this year, in the month of July. Having been left wounded at Vellore, in the beginning of the year, they remained in that garriſon until the month of June, when an eſcort of ſepoys, three three-pounders, and a number of polygars, arrived with ſupplies for the fort. Stimulated by military ardour, they had determined, being pretty well recovered of their wounds, to ſeize this opportunity of rejoining the army, to ſhare in the active ſervice of the campaign; but on the ſecond day's march from Vellore, Tippoo, with his whole army, came down upon them. It was not until moſt of the company's ſepoys were wounded, their ammunition expended, and the polygars had deſerted them, that this ſmall detachment ſurrendered to Tippoo's whole force, by hoiſting a white handkerchief for quarter, which was granted. They received tolerable good uſage in Tippoo's camp, but met with quite the reverſe from Hyder himſelf, who detained them five days, then mixed them with a number of Carnatic boys, and diſpatched them to Seringapatam. On their arrival there, they were conſiderably ſurpriſed not to be confined in the priſon with the other officers, but were almoſt rendered

ſpeechleſs

ſpeechleſs when the horrid deſign of circumciſing them became evident. They were ſurpriſed on the 27th of Auguſt by a dozen ſtout fellows with chawbucks and ropes, who ſeized them without ceremony, tied them, cut off the hair, and then walked away. On the firſt of September following, the ſame villains returned again, ſeized and tied them, and then compelled them to ſwallow a doſe of majum, which diveſted them of ſenſation whilſt the operation was performed.

Soon after the arrival of theſe gentlemen, ſeven of thoſe that had already been circumciſed, amongſt which number I was included, were carried again into the fort to diſcipline ſome hundreds of Carnatic boys, lately torn away from their native ſoil. I had not been many days in the fort before fifty ſeamen arrived from Bangalore, being a part of thoſe given up to Hyder by Admiral Suffrein at Cuddelore in June. Theſe were all choſen young men, picked out from about three hundred that the admiral gave up, and deſtined for Hyder's army. Meſſrs. Wilſon, Edimon, Auſtine, Whiteway, Drake, Cardman, and Leſage, midſhipmen, were of the number. The youngeſt and handſomeſt of theſe unfortunate men underwent a ſecond ſelection at Seringapatam, and were lodged in the palace, as part of the tyrant's houſehold, where they received tolerable good treatment, were inſtructed in the language of the eaſt, and taught different arts and exerciſes according to the ſtations they were intended to fill about his perſon; and whenever their tutor went abroad they attended him. Some of theſe, after the peace, were intended for dancing-boys, and ſent among the notch people to be inſtructed in the manœuvres belonging to that art. Mr. Cadman was one of thoſe to whom the latter choice had fallen, but, on account of what they thought refractory behaviour, he was returned to the chaylahs, and was of the party who made their eſcape with me, and has ſince, I am very happy to hear, got ſafe to Madras. Meſſrs. Wilſon, Edimon, Auſtine, and Whiteway, loſt their lives in the tyrant's dominions ſome years ago. Theſe unfortunate and baſely-ſacrificed ſeamen had all been circumciſed, and were conſidered as the unqueſtionable property of Hyder, which no treaty ſhould induce him to give up, having received them from an ally and friend, whoſe buſineſs it would be to anſwer for them ſhould they ever become the ſubject of an enquiry. It was the opinion of the wretched ſufferers that Suffrein had ſold them to the tyrant; they all declared that the admiral had offered them each a hat-full of dollars, if they would do duty on board the French fleet, it being reduced to great ſhifts for want of hands, and they univerſally ſeemed to think that their firm refuſal provoked the admiral to give them up to Hyder; nay, that he had threatened them with doing ſo in caſe of non-compliance. Thirty of them were fortunate enough to eſcape from Arnee immediately after the ſurrender, without even being miſſed; and many more, no doubt, would have got off the ſame way, as they had found means, when they were muſtered, to deceive by counting twice for thoſe miſſing in the evening, a trick that could not eaſily be diſcovered as long as their faces were not known; but ſome that were retaken by Hyder's people rouſed the ſuſpicion of the guards. Two, however, contrived to get away after this, but one of them ſillily returned the next day, having miſſed his road, and brought the account of his companion's death, who was drowned in attempting to paſs a river.

Towards the end of the year 1782, tidings of Hyder's demiſe reached Seringapatam. His ſon Tippoo, ſince called Tippoo Sultan, took undiſturbed poſſeſſion of all his father's territories, and the command of vaſt armies, at a time when many diſaffected individuals filled both the camp and city. This muſt be eſteemed no contemptible proof of his abilities as a politician as well as a ſoldier; ſuch authority, at leaſt, did his known character carry with it, that no open attempts were made to oppoſe his acceſſion, or divide and circumſcribe his power. Tippoo was with his army, at a conſiderable diſtance from Hyder, when he died; but, when the information reached him, he haſted to his father's camp, and made ſuch diſpoſitions and arrangements as he judged prudent and neceſſary, without

out relaxing, in any degree, the vigour with which he carried on the war againſt the Engliſh.

The loſs of Bedanore, and the firſt of Tippoo's conqueſts, was one of the heavy diſaſters which ſignalized the beginning of this year. Early in the month of May the whole of Tippoo's capital rang with ſhouts and rejoicings in conſequence of this re-capture; ſugar and ſweetmeats were carried about the town in baſkets, and delivered to the inhabitants under the diſcharge of cannon. I do not recollect the ſpirits of the priſoners to be ſo much depreſſed at any one time during my captivity as on this mournful occaſion. To add acuteneſs to our diſtreſs, we were deſired, or rather compelled, to partake of the ſweetmeats prepared for the rejoicings, and our poſitive refuſal was conſtrued into a ſtubbornneſs which deſerved correction; accordingly the killadar determined to make us feel the effects of his diſpleaſure. He ordered us in future into the ranks with the chaylahs, (hitherto having only ſuperintended them;) prohibited every ſpecies of intercourſe and communication with each other, even that of converſing together in public; and conſigned us to the charge of ſentries, who confined us in a ſquare building the whole day without any food. Terrified at this unprovoked and ſudden change of treatment, and very ſenſible that paſſive ſubmiſſion would only ſerve to render our enemies more oppreſſive and inexorable, we reſolved, towards the evening, to be informed of our deſtiny. Having forced the ſentries placed over us, we proceeded in a body to the killadar's quarters, and remonſtrated in the moſt ſubmiſſive terms againſt the cruelty of ſtarving and tormenting us without any real cauſe. He took not the ſmalleſt notice of our complaint, but ordered a party of ſepoys to ſurround us, and tie us with ropes; after which he ordered us, one by one, to be ſcourged in his preſence, until his ſavage diſpoſition was glutted with the groans extorted from us. Enſign Clark, who had ſtood our ſpeaker on this occaſion, being well verſed in the Hindoſtan or Mooriſh language, was firſt on the liſt, and moſt inhumanly flogged; a few only eſcaped by the unmerciful barbarian's growing tired of the ſport. We were kept the whole of this night and the ſucceeding day in the open air, bound and expoſed to the burning ſun. On the ſecond evening ſome victuals were diſtributed amongſt us, when we were diſperſed in different places amongſt the ſlaves, and treated with uncommon rigour for a long time afterwards.

A ſingular ſpecies of cruelty occurred about this time. Four European women, with their huſbands, belonging to the Bedanore garriſon, were brought to Seringapatam, where they were torn from their huſbands, and allotted to four of the black ſlaves. Two became the property of the natives of Myſore, and the other two were given to a couple of Abyſſinians, with whom they were compelled to live. I ſaw theſe women myſelf, they were good-looking females, but pity was all the aſſiſtance I was able to afford them.

A conſpiracy againſt the uſurper was diſcovered in the month of Auguſt this year. The project was planned with much precaution and judgment, and it was intended that the European priſoners ſhould be admitted to a ſhare in the enterpriſe, which had nothing leſs in view than to reſtore the reins of government to the ancient race of Myſore, and emancipate the preſent king from the ſhackles of the regency. One of the conſpirators betrayed the plot, on the very eve of its execution, by which he ſaved himſelf, and brought his aſſociates to the moſt excruciating tortures, ſuch as being dragged to death at the heels of elephants, &c.

The month of September 1783 was diſtinguiſhed by the inhuman murder of Gen. Matthews, who was certainly poiſoned in a very barbarous manner, being ſtarved until he had conſented to eat of the food which he had diſcovered contained poiſon. He refuſed for ſeveral days to taſte nouriſhment, but hunger ſurmounted at laſt the deſire of protracting a miſerable exiſtence: he ſwallowed a plentiful portion of the victuals prepared for him, and in a few hours after expired in violent convulſions.

In the month of December following, all the circumciſed Europeans in Seringapatam were removed to Myſore, the ancient capital of the kingdom, but

at that time an inſignificant little fort, about ſeven miles to the ſouthward of Seringapatam, which Tippoo has ſince demoliſhed, and erected a new and ſtronger one a little to the eaſtward of the former, called Sultan Killah. After four months confinement at Myſore, we were marched back to Seringapatam. Tippoo had then returned to his capital, and peace with the Engliſh was concluded.

It is difficult for thoſe who never experienced ſimilar calamities to form any adequate or juſt conception of our deſpondence in finding ourſelves, when peace was reſtored, for ever ſecluded from our country and friends. The hopes of one day rejoining thoſe to whom he might relate our adverſities in ſafety, and enjoy the pleaſing reflections of having ſurmounted ſufferings incurred in the cauſe and ſervice of our country, had hitherto ſupported us againſt every misfortune. A general reſtoration of priſoners had been the baſis of the peace; but our rulers found themſelves reduced to connive at the moſt flagrant infringement of this article.

We were now poſted to the different chaylah battalions in the capacity of havildars, and received ſeven rupees per month. Lieutenants Speediman and Rutledge were appointed ſubadars. Lieutenant Brumpton, who came up to Seringapatam at the ſame time with myſelf, and Enſign Gordon, a gentleman who had been a long time confined at Chittledroog, were liberated.

Our confinement was ſtill continued with its former rigour and circumſpection; we were ſcarcely allowed to look out of our priſon, and for near three years ſucceeding the peace our ſlavery ſuffered little or no relaxation. We were not, in general, allowed to ſtir, even on the moſt preſſing occaſions, without a ſentry to accompany us; nor ſhould we at any time during that period have been permitted to walk about freely, if the officers who were entruſted with the charge of us, and reſponſible for our appearance, had not at times indulged us with ſome liberty, truſting, I ſuppoſe, to the impoſſibility of our getting away.

We were now transferred from the chaylahs to the Malabar Roman Catholic Chriſtians, conſiſting originally of about forty thouſand unfortunate wretches, men, women, and children, forced away from the Bedanore and Mangalore countries in 1784, and compelled to embrace Mahometiſm, not, however, without exhibiting ſeveral martyrs in ſupport of a doctrine with which they had no farther acquaintance than what conſiſting in counting a row of beads, and performing genuflexions before a crucified image. The corps or battalion of theſe wretches, to which I had been poſted, was ſoon afterwards ſent to Myſore, where it remained five months, and then returned. Theſe marches had nothing in view but to keep the unfortunate enſlaved ſoldiers in employ, and to break any combinations which might have been formed.

In the beginning of 1789, ſix men, whom we had not heard of before, were brought from Chittledroog to Seringapatam; this ſufficiently evinces, that many more Europeans than what are ſuſpected are concealed in Tippoo's dominions. Theſe men were, ſoon after their arrival, carried out of the fort in irons into a wood, where they were hanged. They had belonged to the Bedanore garriſon which capitulated: what induced the barbarous conqueror to murder theſe men in cold blood I never was able to diſcover.

We heard nothing of Tippoo's movements for a conſiderable time; when, at laſt, orders were received at the capital to prepare for the nuptials of his ſon, a ſtout boy about ſeventeen years of age, who was to eſpouſe the daughter of the Queen of Cannonore. Orders were alſo received at the ſame time to arrange matters preparatory to the father's inauguration as Sultaun of the Eaſt, the title which he in future intended to aſſume, and in which quality he meditated nothing leſs than the ſubjection of all India. He likewiſe iſſued a proclamation, prohibiting all marriages in the kingdom of Myſore until ſuch time as the wedding of his ſon ſhould take place, being determined to celebrate that day by the conſummation of twenty-five thouſand marriages at his own charge.

His orders for the ſolemnization of this marriage created a general buſtle and tumult throughout the city; every individual

individual that could perform any thing curious or clever was employed. The palace of old Hyder was demoliſhed, and in the rear of it was begun a more extenſive and magnificent one of a triangular form, and fronting a famous pagoda in the centre of the fort: in this the Myſorean prince propoſed to be inaugurated. Having been preſented by the court of France with four large and curious cryſtal pedeſtals, theſe were to ſupport his throne. This royal ſeat was to be ſuperbly decorated, and built by Europeans; but neither the palace nor the throne were finiſhed when I left Seringapatam.

When Hyder had carried his long-diſputed point againſt Travancore, which took up about twice the time he had conjectured, he returned to his capital, and was received with all the ſplendour of a conqueror; triumphal arches filled the ſtreets through which he paſſed, and the decorations which had been originally deſtined to grace the nuptials of his ſon were diſplayed on this occaſion. On his arrival he proceeded directly to his father's tomb, where he ſpent the whole day in ſolemn prayers. He entered the fort at night through a road brilliantly illuminated.

On his return from this expedition, he brought a number of different ſorts of guns, and a large quantity of ſheet copper, of which he had ſtripped the domes of the Roman Catholic churches on the Malabar coaſt; with likewiſe three thouſand of the captured Travancorians and the families of about three hundred of the Cochin people, whom he had been cruel enough to ſeize, and, after tying them in pairs, drove them into the ſea.

Tippoo now ſet very ſeriouſly about new modelling and muſtering his troops The artillery did not eſcape his notice; his arſenal was well ſupplied with warlike ſtores, and every preparation in his power was made for a war; the Engliſh priſoners were ordered into the fort again, and their capturer, at one of the reviews, obſerving amongſt the chaylahs ſome priſoners that were ſhaved, he remarked to one of his courtiers: "Theſe men, I ſee, have diſcovered a new bible and creed at laſt," meaning the Koran and Mahometan doctrine. When he had inſpected every thing in perſon, carried reform into every department, and provided againſt deficiencies and abuſes, he at laſt iſſued orders for a ſecond campaign, and took the field. It was not, however, until we received the intelligence from an European taken priſoner at Caroor, where he had been ſtraggling whilſt intoxicated, and brought to Seringapatam, that the European priſoners heard for certain of war having actually broke out betwixt Tippoo and the Engliſh.

Upon this news, five men beſides myſelf had actually reſolved to truſt our lives in a boat on the Coleroon, and let the current carry us where it would, though we had been informed that a cataract on the route rendered this enterpriſe extremely hazardous; but we were certain it would carry us from Seringapatam, and nothing which could befal us afterwards appeared half ſo dreadful as remaining in ſlavery there. We had nearly conſtructed a baſket-boat for our purpoſe, made of bamboos, which we got ready ſplit from the dhomwallas, or baſket-makers, and had ſecured leather to cover it with. An old uninhabited houſe ſerved to hide our materials and machine in; the ſplit bamboos were concealed under the thatched roof, ſo as not to be immediately diſcoverd by any perſon looking accidentally into the houſe. The boat itſelf was buried in a large hole in the ground. Two of us uſed to ſteal away for an hour or two in the night, and work by turns whenever we found it practicable. It came, however, to the knowledge of the reſt, and alarmed them ſo much, that we yielded to their ſupplications, and abandoned the project, as it was impoſſible to build, or even procure, boats to convey the whole of us at one trip.

[*To be continued.*]

ON CRIMES AND PUNISHMENTS.

THE diſcuſſion and admeaſurement of crimes and puniſhments forms in every country the code of criminal law; or, as it is more uſually denominated in England, the doctrine of the pleas of the crown: ſo called, becauſe the

the king, in whom centres the majesty of the whole community, is supposed by the law to be the person injured by every infraction of the public rights belonging to that community; and is therefore in all cases the proper prosecutor for every public offence.

The knowledge of this branch of jurisprudence, which teaches the nature, extent, and degrees, of every crime, and adjusts to it its adequate and necessary penalty, is of the utmost importance to every individual in the state. For no rank or elevation in life, no uprightness of heart, no prudence or circumspection of conduct should tempt a man to conclude, that he may not at some time or other be deeply interested in these researches. The infirmities of the best among us, the vices and ungovernable passions of others, the instability of all human affairs, and the numberless unforeseen events which the compass of a day may bring forth, will teach us (upon a moment's reflection), that to know with precision what the laws of our country have forbidden, and the deplorable consequences to which a wilful disobedience may expose us, is a matter of universal concern.

In proportion to the importance of the criminal law ought also to be the care and attention of the legislator in properly forming and enforcing it. It should be founded upon principles that are permanent, uniform, and universal; and always conformable to the dictates of truth and justice, the feelings of humanity, and the indelible rights of mankind; though it sometimes (provided there be no transgression of these eternal boundaries) may be modified, narrowed, or enlarged, according to the local or occasional necessities of the state which it is meant to govern. And yet, either from a want of attention to these principles in the first concoction of the laws, and adopting in their stead the impetuous dictates of avarice, ambition, and revenge; from retaining the discordant political regulations, which successive conquerors or factions have established, in the various revolutions of government; from giving a lasting efficacy to sanctions that were intended to be temporary, and made (as Lord Bacon expresses it) merely upon the spur of the occasion; or from, lastly, too hastily employing such means as are greatly disproportionate to their end, in order to check the progress of some very prevalent offence;—from some, or from all, of these causes it hath happened, that the criminal law is in every country of Europe more rude and imperfect than the civil. We shall not here enter into any minute enquiries concerning the local constitutions of other nations; the inhumanity and mistaken policy of which have been sufficiently pointed out by ingenious writers of their own; as Montesquieu, Marquis of Beccaria, &c. But even with us in Britain, where our crown-law is with justice supposed to be more nearly advanced to perfection; where crimes are more accurately defined, and penalties less uncertain and arbitrary; where all our accusations are public, and our trials in the face of the world; where torture is unknown, and every delinquent is judged by such of his equals against whom he can form no exception, nor even a personal dislike; even here we shall occasionally find room to remark some particulars that seem to want revision and amendment. These have chiefly arisen from too scrupulous an adherence to some rules of the ancient common law, when the reasons have ceased upon which those rules were founded; from not repealing such of the old penal laws as are either obsolete or absurd; and from too little care and attention in framing and passing new ones. The enacting of penalties to which a whole nation shall be subject ought not to be left, as a matter of indifference, to the passions or interests of a few, who, upon temporary motives, may prefer or support such a bill; but be calmly and maturely considered by persons who know what provisions the laws have already made to remedy the mischief complained of, who can from experience foresee the probable consequences of those which are now proposed, and who will judge without passion or prejudice how adequate they are to the evil. It is never usual in the house of peers even to read a private bill, which may affect the property of an individual, without first referring it to some of the learned judges, and hearing their report there-

on. And ſurely equal precaution is neceſſary, when laws are to be eſtabliſhed, which may affect the property, the liberty, and perhaps even the lives, of thouſands. Had ſuch a reference taken place, it is impoſſible that in the eighteenth century it could ever have been made a capital crime to break down (however maliciouſly) the mound of a fiſh-pond, whereby any fiſh ſhall eſcape; or to cut down a cherry-tree in an orchard. Were even a committee appointed but once in an hundred years to reviſe the criminal law, it could not have continued to this hour a felony, without benefit of clergy, to be ſeen for one month in the company of perſons who call themſelves, or are called, Egyptians.

It is true, that theſe outrageous penalties, being ſeldom or never inflicted, are hardly known to be the law by the public; but that rather aggravates the miſchief, by laying a ſnare for the unwary. Yet they cannot but occur to the obſervation of any one who hath undertaken the taſk of examining the great outlines of our law, and tracing them up to their principles; and it is the duty of ſuch a one to hint them with decency to thoſe whoſe abilities and ſtations enable them to apply the remedy. Proceed we now to conſider (in the firſt place) the general nature of crimes.

I. A crime, or miſdemeanour, is an act committed, or omitted, in violation of a public law, either forbidding or commanding it. This general definition comprehends both crimes and miſdemeanours: which, properly ſpeaking, are mere ſynonymous terms: though, in common uſage, the word "crimes" is made to denote ſuch offences as are of a deeper and more atrocious dye; while ſmaller faults, and omiſſions of leſs conſequence, are comprized under the gentler name of "miſdemeanours" only.

The diſtinction of public wrongs from private, of crimes and miſdemeanours from civil injuries, ſeems principally to conſiſt in this: that private wrongs, or civil injuries, are an infringement or privation of the civil rights which belong to individuals, conſidered merely as individuals; public wrongs, or crimes and miſdemeanours, are a breach and violation of the public rights and duties due to the whole community, conſidered as a community, in its ſocial aggregate capacity. As, if I detain a field from another man, to which the law has given him a right, this is a civil injury, and not a crime; for here only the right of an individual is concerned, and it is immaterial to the public which of us is in poſſeſſion of the land: but treaſon, murder, and robbery, are properly ranked among crimes; ſince, beſides the injury done to individuals, they ſtrike at the very being of ſociety, which cannot poſſibly ſubſiſt where actions of this ſort are ſuffered to eſcape with impunity.

In all caſes the crime includes an injury; every public offence is alſo a private wrong, and ſomewhat more; it affects the individual, and it likewiſe affects the community. Thus treaſon in imagining the king's death, involves in it conſpiracy againſt an individual which is alſo a civil injury; but as this ſpecies of treaſon in its conſequences principally tends to the diſſolution of government, and the deſtruction thereby of the order and peace of ſociety, this denominates it a crime of the higheſt magnitude. Murder is an injury to the life of an individual; but the law of ſociety conſiders principally the loſs which the ſtate ſuſtains by being deprived of a member, and the pernicious example thereby ſet for others to do the like. Robbery may be conſidered in the ſame view: it is an injury to private property; but, were that all, a civil ſatisfaction in damages might atone for it: the public miſchief is the thing, for the prevention of which our laws have made it a capital offence. In theſe groſs and atrocious injuries the private wrong is ſwallowed up in the public; we ſeldom hear any mention made of ſatisfaction to the individual; the ſatisfaction to the community being ſo very great. And indeed, as the public crime is not otherwiſe avenged than by forfeiture of life and property, it is impoſſible afterwards to make any reparation for the private wrong, which can only be had from the body or goods of the aggreſſor. But there are crimes of an inferior nature, in which the public puniſhment is not ſo ſevere, but it affords room for a private compenſation

tion alſo; and herein the diſtinction of crimes from civil injuries is very apparent. For inſtance; in the caſe of battery, or beating another, the aggreſſor may be indicted for this at the ſuit of the king, for diſturbing the public peace, and be puniſhed criminally by fine and impriſonment; and the party beaten may alſo have his private remedy by action of treſpaſs, for the injury which he in particular ſuſtains, and recover a civil ſatisfaction in damages. So alſo, in caſe of a public nuiſance, as digging a ditch acroſs a highway, this is puniſhable by indictment, as a common offence to the whole kingdom, and all his majeſty's ſubjects: but if any individual ſuſtains any ſpecial damage thereby, as laming his horſe, breaking his carriage, or the like, the offender may be compelled to make ample ſatisfaction, as well for the private injury as for the public wrong.

II. The nature of crimes and miſdemeanours in general being thus aſcertained and diſtinguiſhed, we proceed in the next place to conſider the general nature of puniſhments: which are evils or inconveniences conſequent upon crimes and miſdemeanours; being deviſed, denounced, and inflicted, by human laws, in conſequence of diſobedience or miſbehaviour in thoſe, to regulate whoſe conduct ſuch laws were reſpectively made. And herein we ſhall briefly conſider the power, the end, and the meaſure, of human puniſhment.

1. As to the power of human puniſhment, or the right of the temporal legiſlator to inflict diſcretionary penalties for crimes and miſdemeanours. It is clear, that the right of puniſhing crimes againſt the law of nature, as murder and the like, is in a ſtate of mere nature veſted in every individual. For it muſt be veſted in ſomebody; otherwiſe the laws of nature would be vain and fruitleſs, if none were empowered to put them in execution: and, if that power is veſted in any one, if muſt alſo be veſted in all mankind; ſince all are by nature equal: whereof the firſt murderer Cain was ſo ſenſible, that we find him expreſſing his apprehenſions, that whoever ſhould find him would ſlay him. In a ſtate of ſociety this right is transferred from individuals to the ſovereign power; whereby men are prevented from being judges in their own cauſes, which is one of the evils that civil government was intended to remedy. Whatever power therefore individuals had of puniſhing offences againſt the law of nature, that is now veſted in the magiſtrate alone; who bears the ſword of juſtice by the conſent of the whole community. And to this precedent natural power of individuals muſt be referred that right, which ſome have argued to belong to every ſtate (though, in fact, never exerciſed by any), of puniſhing not only their own ſubjects, but alſo foreign ambaſſadors, even with death itſelf, in caſe they have offended, not indeed againſt the municipal laws of the country, but againſt the divine laws of nature, and become liable thereby to forfeit their lives for their guilt.

As to offences merely againſt the laws of ſociety, which are only *mala prohibita*, and not *mala in ſe*, the temporal magiſtrate is alſo impowered to inflict coercive penalties for ſuch tranſgreſſions: and this by the conſent of individuals; who, in forming ſocieties, did, either tacitly or expreſsly, inveſt the ſovereign power with a right of making laws, and of enforcing obedience to them when made, by exerciſing, upon their non-obſervance, ſeverities adequate to the evil. The lawfulneſs therefore of puniſhing ſuch criminals is founded upon this principle, that the law by which they ſuffer was made by their own conſent; it is a part of the original contract into which they entered when firſt they engaged in ſociety; it was calculated for, and has long contributed to, their own ſecurity.

This right therefore, being thus conferred by univerſal conſent, gives to the ſtate exactly the ſame power, and no more, over all its members, as each individual member had naturally over himſelf or others; which has occaſioned ſome to doubt how far a human legiſlature ought to inflict capital puniſhments for poſitive offences; offences againſt the municipal law only, and not againſt the law of nature; ſince no individual has, naturally, a power of inflicting death upon himſelf or others for actions in themſelves indifferent. With regard to offences *mala in ſe*, capital puniſhments are in ſome inſtances

inflicted by the immediate command of God himself to all mankind; as, in the case of murder, by the precept delivered to Noah, their common ancestor and representative, "Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed." In other instances they are inflicted after the example of the Creator, in his positive code of laws for the regulation of the Jewish republic; as in the case of the crime against nature. But they are sometimes inflicted without such express warrant or example, at the will and discretion of the human legislature; as for forgery, for theft, and sometimes for offences of a lighter kind. This practice is thus justified by that great and good man Sir Matthew Hale: "When offences grow enormous, frequent, and dangerous to a kingdom or state, destructive or highly pernicious to civil societies, and to the great insecurity and danger of the kingdom or its inhabitants, severe punishment and even death itself is necessary to be annexed to laws in many cases by the prudence of lawgivers." It is therefore the enormity, or dangerous tendency, of the crime, that alone can warrant any earthly legislature in putting him to death that commits it. It is not its frequency only, or the difficulty of otherwise preventing it, that will excuse our attempting to prevent it by a wanton effusion of human blood. For, though the end of punishment is to deter men from offending, it never can follow from thence, that it is lawful to deter them at any rate and by any means; since there may be unlawful methods of enforcing obedience even to the justest laws. Every humane legislator will be therefore extremely cautious of establishing laws that inflict the penalty of death, especially for slight offences, or such as are merely positive. He will expect a better reason for his so doing than that loose one which generally is given; that it is found by former experience that no lighter penalty will be effectual. For is it found, upon farther experience, that capital punishments are more effectual? Was the vast territory of all the Russias worse regulated under the late Empress Elizabeth than under her more sanguinary predecessors? Is it now, under Catherine II. less civilised, less social, less secure? And yet we are assured, that neither of these illustrious princesses have, throughout their whole administration, inflicted the penalty of death: and the latter has, upon full persuasion of its being useless, nay even pernicious, given orders for abolishing it entirely throughout her extensive dominions. But indeed, were capital punishments proved by experience to be a sure and effectual remedy, that would not prove the necessity (upon which the justice and propriety depend) of inflicting them upon all occasions when other expedients fail. It is feared this reasoning would extend a great deal too far. For instance, the damage done to our public roads by loaded waggons is universally allowed, and many laws have been made to prevent it, none of which have hitherto proved effectual. But it does not therefore follow, that it would be just for the legislature to inflict death upon every obstinate carrier who defeats or eludes the provisions of former statutes. Where the evil to be prevented is not adequate to the violence of the preventive, a sovereign that thinks seriously can never justify such a law to the dictates of conscience and humanity. To shed the blood of our fellow-creatures is a matter that requires the greatest deliberation, and the fullest conviction of our own authority: for life is the immediate gift of God to man; which neither he can resign, nor can it be taken from him, unless by the command or permission of him who gave it, either expressly revealed, or collected from the laws of nature or society by clear and indisputable demonstration.

We would not be understood to deny the right of the legislature in any country to inforce its own laws by the death of the transgressor, though persons of some abilities have doubted it; but only to suggest a few hints for the consideration of such as are, or may hereafter become, legislators. When a question arises, whether death may be lawfully inflicted for this or that transgression, the wisdom of the laws must decide it: and to this public judgment or decision all private judgments must submit; else there is an end of the first principle of all society and government. The guilt of blood, if any,

must

muſt lie at their doors who miſinterpret the extent of their warrant; and not at the door of the ſubject, who is bound to receive the interpretations that are given by the ſovereign power.

2. As to the end, or final cauſe, of human puniſhments. This is not by way of atonement or expiation for the crime committed; for that muſt be left to the juſt determination of the Supreme Being: but as a precaution againſt future offences of the ſame kind. This is effected three ways: either by the amendment of the offender himſelf; for which purpoſe all corporal puniſhments fines, and temporary exile or impriſonment, are inflicted: or, by deterring others by the dread of his example from offending in the like way, "*ut pœna* (as Tully expreſſes it) *ad paucos, metus ad omnes, perveniat*;" which gives riſe to all ignominious puniſhments, and to ſuch executions of juſtice as are open and public: or, laſtly, by depriving the party injuring of the power to do further miſchief; which is effected by either putting him to death, or condemning him to perpetual confinement, ſlavery, or exile. The ſame one end, of preventing future crimes, is endeavoured to be anſwered by each of theſe three ſpecies of puniſhment. The public gains equal ſecurity, whether the offender himſelf be amended by wholeſome correction, or whether he be diſabled from doing any farther harm: and if the penalty fails of both theſe effects, as it may do, ſtill the terror of his example remains as a warning to other citizens. The method, however, of inflicting puniſhment ought always to be proportioned to the particular purpoſe it is meant to ſerve, and by no means to exceed it: therefore the pains of death, and perpetual diſability by exile, ſlavery, or impriſonment, ought never to be inflicted, but when the offender appears incorrigible: which may be collected either from a repetition of minuter offences; or from the perpetration of ſome one crime of deep malignity, which of itſelf demonſtrates a diſpoſition without hope or probability of amendment: and in ſuch caſes it would be cruelty to the public to defer the puniſhment of ſuch a criminal till he had an opportunity of repeating perhaps the worſt of villanies.

3. As to the meaſure of human puniſhments. From what has been obſerved in the former articles we may collect, that the quantity of puniſhment can never be abſolutely determined by any ſtanding invariable rule; but it muſt be left to the arbitration of the legiſlature to inflict ſuch penalties as are warranted by the laws of nature and ſociety, and ſuch as appear to be the beſt calculated to anſwer the end of precaution againſt future offences.

Hence it will be evident, that what ſome have ſo highly extolled for its equity, the *lex talionis*, or "law of retaliation," can never be in all caſes an adequate or permanent rule of puniſhment. In ſome caſes indeed it ſeems to be dictated by natural reaſon; as in the caſe of conſpiracies to do an injury, or falſe accuſations of the innocent; to which we may add that law of the Jews and Egyptians, mentioned by Joſephus and Diodorus Siculus, that whoever, without ſufficient cauſe, was found with any mortal poiſon in his cuſtody, ſhould himſelf be obliged to take it. But, in general, the difference of perſons, place, time, provocation, or other circumſtances, may enhance or mitigate the offence; and in ſuch caſes retaliation can never be a proper meaſure of juſtice. If a nobleman ſtrikes a peaſant, all mankind will ſee, that, if a court of juſtice awards a return of the blow, it is more than a juſt compenſation. On the other hand, retaliation may ſometimes be too eaſy a ſentence; as, if a man maliciouſly ſhould put out the remaining eye of him who had loſt one before, it is too ſlight a puniſhment for the maimer to loſe only one of his: and therefore the law of the Locrians, which demanded an eye for an eye, was in this inſtance judiciouſly altered; by decreeing, in imitation of Solon's laws, that he who ſtruck out the eye of a one-eyed man ſhould loſe both his own in return. Beſides, there are very many crimes that will in no ſhape admit of theſe penalties, without manifeſt abſurdity and wickedneſs. Theft cannot be puniſhed by theft, defamation by defamation, forgery by forgery, adultery by adultery, and the like. And we may add, that thoſe inſtances, wherein retaliation appears to be uſed, even by divine authority, do not really proceed

proceed upon the rule of exact retribution, by doing to the criminal the ſame hurt he has done to his neighbour, and no more; but this correſpondence between the crime and puniſhment is barely a conſequence from ſome other principle. Death is ordered to be puniſhed with death; not becauſe one is equivalent to the other, for that would be expiation, and not puniſhment. Nor is death always an equivalent for death: the execution of a needy decrepid aſſaſſin is a poor ſatisfaction for the death of a nobleman in the bloom of his youth, and full enjoyment of his friends, his honours, and his fortune. But the reaſon upon which this ſentence is grounded ſeems to be, that this is the higheſt penalty that man can inflict, and tends moſt to the ſecurity of the world, by removing one murderer from the earth, and ſetting a dreadful example to deter others: ſo that even this grand inſtance proceeds upon other principles than thoſe of retaliation. And truly, if any meaſure of puniſhment is to be taken from the damage ſuſtained by the ſufferer, the puniſhment ought rather to exceed than equal the injury: ſince it ſeems contrary to reaſon and equity, that the guilty (if convicted) ſhould ſuffer no more than the innocent has done before him: eſpecially as the ſuffering of the innocent is paſt and irrevocable, that of the guilty is future, contingent, and liable to be eſcaped or evaded. With regard indeed to crimes that are incomplete, which conſiſt merely in the intention, and are not yet carried into act, as conſpiracies and the like, the innocent has a chance to fruſtrate or avoid the villany as the conſpirator has alſo a chance to eſcape his puniſhment; and this may be one reaſon why the *lex talionis* is more proper to be inflicted, if at all, for crimes that conſiſt in intention than for ſuch as are carried into act. It ſeems indeed conſonant to natural reaſon, and has therefore been adopted as a maxim by ſeveral theoretical writers, that the puniſhment, due to the crime of which one falſely accuſes another, ſhould be inflicted on the perjured informer. Accordingly, when it was once attempted to introduce into England the law of retaliation, it was intended only as a puniſhment for ſuch only as preferred malicious accuſations againſt others; it being enacted by ſtatute 37 Edw. III. c. 18. that ſuch as preferred any ſuggeſtions to the king's great council ſhould put in ſureties of taliation; that is, to incur the ſame pain that the other ſhould have had, in caſe the ſuggeſtions were found untrue. But, after one year's experience, this puniſhment of taliation was rejected, and impriſonment adopted in its ſtead.

But though from what has been ſaid it appears, that there cannot be any regular determinate method of rating the quantity of puniſhments for crimes by any one uniform rule; but they muſt be referred to the will and diſcretion of the legiſlative power: yet there are ſome general principles, drawn from the nature and circumſtances of the crime, that may be of ſome aſſiſtance in allotting it an adequate puniſhment.

As, firſt, with regard to the object of it: for the greater and more exalted the object of an injury is, the more care ſhould be taken to prevent that injury, and of courſe under this aggravation the puniſhment ſhould be more ſevere. Therefore treaſon in conſpiring the king's death is (in Britain) puniſhed with greater rigour than even actually killing any private ſubject. And yet, generally, a deſign to tranſgreſs is not ſo flagrant an enormity as the actual completion of that deſign. For evil, the nearer we approach it, is the more diſagreeable and ſhocking; ſo that it requires more obſtinacy in wickedneſs to perpetrate an unlawful action than barely to entertain the thought of it: and it is an encouragment to repentance and remorſe, even till the laſt ſtage of any crime, that is never is too late to retract; and that, if a man ſtops even here, it is better for him than if he proceeds: for which reaſons an attempt to rob, to raviſh, or to kill, is far leſs penal than the actual robbery, rape, or murder. But, in the caſe of a treaſonable conſpiracy, the object whereof is the king's majeſty, the bare intention will deſerve the higheſt degree of ſeverity: not becauſe the intention is equivalent to the act itſelf; but becauſe the greateſt rigour is no more than adequate to a treaſonable purpoſe of the heart, and there is no greater left to inflict upon the actual execution itſelf.

Again:

Again: The violence of paſſion, or temptation, may ſometimes alleviate a crime; as theft, in caſe of hunger, is far more worthy of compaſſion, than when committed through avarice, or to ſupply one in luxurious exceſſes. To kill a man upon ſudden and violent reſentment is leſs penal than upon cool deliberate malice. The age, education, and character, of the offender; the repetition (or otherwiſe) of the offence; the time, the place, the company wherein it was committed; all theſe, and a thouſand other incidents, may aggravate or extenuate the crime. Thus Demoſthenes (in his oration againſt Midias) finely works up the aggravations of the inſults he had received: "I was abuſed (ſays he) by my enemy in cold blood, out of malice, not by heat of wine; in the morning publicly, before ſtrangers as well as citizens; and that in the temple, whither the duty of my office called me."

Farther: As puniſhments are chiefly intended for the prevention of future crimes, it is but reaſonable that, among crimes of different natures, thoſe ſhould be moſt ſeverely puniſhed which are the moſt deſtructive of the public ſafety and happineſs; and, among crimes of an equal malignity, thoſe which a man has the moſt frequent and eaſy opportunities of committing, which cannot be ſo eaſily guarded againſt as others, and which therefore the offender has the ſtrongeſt inducement to commit: according to what Cicero obſerves, *Ea ſunt animadvertenda peccata maxime, quæ difficillime præcaventur.* Hence it is, that for a ſervant to rob his maſter is in more caſes capital than for a ſtranger. If a ſervant kills his maſter, it is a ſpecies of treaſon; in another it is only murder. To ſteal a handkerchief, or other trifle of above the value of twelve-pence, privately from one's perſon, is made capital; but to carry off a load of corn from an open field, though of fifty times greater value, is puniſhed with tranſportation only. And in the iſland of Man this rule was formerly carried ſo far, that to take away an horſe or an ox was there no felony, but a treſpaſs, becauſe of the difficulty in that little territory to conceal them or carry them off: but to ſteal a pig or a fowl, which is eaſily done, was a capital miſdemeanour, and the offender was puniſhed with death.

Laſtly, as a concluſion to the whole, we may obſerve, that puniſhments of unreaſonable ſeverity, eſpecially when indiſcriminately inflicted, have leſs effect in preventing crimes, and amending the manners of a people, than ſuch as are more merciful in general, yet properly intermixed with due diſtinctions of ſeverity. It is the ſentiment of an ingenious writer, who ſeems to have well ſtudied the ſprings of human action, that crimes are more effectually prevented by the certainty than by the ſeverity of puniſhment; for the exceſſive ſeverity of laws (ſays Monteſquieu) hinders their execution. When the puniſhment ſurpaſſes all meaſure, the public will frequently prefer impunity to it. Thus alſo the ſtatute 1 Mar. ſt. 1. c. 1. recites in its preamble, "that the ſtate of every king conſiſts more aſſuredly in the love of the ſubject towards their prince than in the dread of laws made with rigorous pains; and that laws made for the preſervation of the commonwealth without great penalties are more often obeyed and kept than laws made with extreme puniſhments." Happy had it been for the nation if the ſubſequent practice of that deluded princeſs in matters of religion had been correſpondent to theſe ſentiments of herſelf and parliament in matters of ſtate and government! We may further obſerve, that ſanguinary laws are a bad ſymptom of the diſtemper of any ſtate, or at leaſt of its weak conſtitution. The laws of the Roman kings, and the twelve tables of the *decemviri*, were full of cruel puniſhments: the Porcian law, which exempted all citizens from ſentence of death, ſilently abrogated them all. In this period the republic flouriſhed: under the emperors ſevere puniſhments were revived, and then the empire fell.

It is, moreover, abſurd and impolitic to apply the ſame puniſhment to crimes of different malignity. A multitude of ſanguinary laws (beſides the doubt that may be entertained concerning the right of making them) do likewiſe prove a manifeſt defect either in the wiſdom of the legiſlative or the ſtrength of the executive power. It is a kind of quackery in government, and argues

argues a want of ſolid ſkill, to apply the ſame univerſal remedy, the *ultimum ſupplicium*, to every caſe of difficulty. It is, it muſt be owned, much eaſier to extirpate than to amend mankind; yet that magiſtrate muſt be eſteemed both a weak and a cruel ſurgeon, who cuts off every limb which through ignorance or indolence he will not attempt to cure. It has been therefore ingeniouſly propoſed, that in every ſtate a ſcale of crimes ſhould be formed, with a correſponding ſcale of puniſhments, deſcending from the greateſt to the leaſt. But, if that be too romantic an idea, yet at leaſt a wiſe legiſlator will mark the principal diviſions, and not aſſign penalties of the firſt degree to offences of an inferior rank. Where men ſee no diſtinction made in the nature and gradations of puniſhment, the generality will be led to conclude there is no diſtinction in the guilt. Thus in France the puniſhment of robbery, either with or without murder, is the ſame: hence it is, that, tho' perhaps they are therefore ſubject to fewer robberies, yet they ſeldom rob but they alſo murder. In China murderers are cut to pieces, and robbers not: hence in that country they never murder on the highway, though they often rob. And in Britain, beſides the additional terrors of a ſpeedy execution, and a ſubſequent expoſure or diſſection, robbers have a hope of tranſportation, which ſeldom is extended to murderers. This has the ſame effect here as in China, in preventing frequent aſſaſſination and ſlaughter.

Yet, though in this inſtance we may glory in the wiſdom of our law, we ſhall find it more difficult to juſtify the frequency of capital puniſhment to be found therein; inflicted (perhaps inattentively), by a multitude of ſucceſſive independent ſtatutes, upon crimes very different in their natures. It is a melancholy truth, that, among the variety of actions which men are daily liable to commit, no leſs than one hundred and ſixty have been declared by acts of parliament to be felonies without benefit of clergy; or, in other words, to be worthy of inſtant death. So dreadful a liſt, inſtead of diminiſhing, increaſes the number of offenders. The injured, through compaſſion, will often forbear to proſecute; juries, through compaſſion, will ſometimes forget their oaths, and either acquit the guilty or mitigate the nature of the offence; and judges, through compaſſion, will reſpite one half of the convicts, and recommend them to the royal mercy. Among ſo many chances of eſcaping, the needy and hardened offender overlooks the multitude that ſuffer: he boldly engages in ſome deſperate attempt to relieve his wants or ſupply his vices; and if, unexpectedly, the hand of juſtice overtakes him, he deems himſelf peculiarly unfortunate in falling at laſt a ſacrifice to thoſe laws which long impunity has taught him to contemn.

HISTORY OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

[*Continued from page* 179.]

THE manners of the Chineſe bear no reſemblance to thoſe of any other nation; and, if we may believe their hiſtorians, they are the ſame at this day that they were four thouſand years ago. The women are condemned to almoſt perpetual impriſonment within the precincts of their own houſes, and are never ſeen even by their intended huſbands before marriage. He knows nothing of her looks or perſon but from the account of ſome female relation or confidante, who in ſuch caſes acts the part of match-maker; though, if impoſed upon either with regard to her age or figure, he can have recourſe to a divorce. The ſame matrons who negociate the marriage alſo determine the ſum which the intended huſband muſt pay to the parents of the bride: for in China a father does not give a dowry to his daughter; it is the huſband who gives a dowry to the wife. When the day appointed for the marriage is arrived, the bride is placed in a cloſe chair or palanquin, the key of which is committed to the care of a truſty domeſtic, who muſt deliver it to none but the

the huſband. The latter, richly dreſſed waits at his gate for the arrival of the proceſſion. As ſoon as it approaches, the key is put into his hands; he eagerly opens the chair, and for the firſt time perceives his good or bad fortune. If he is contented with his new ſpouſe, the bride deſcends and enters the houſe, where the marriage is concluded by feaſting and merriment as in other countries; but, if the bridegroom is very much diſappointed, he ſuddenly ſhuts the chair, and ſends the bride home to her relations. To get rid of her in this manner, however, coſts a ſum equal to what he originally gave in dowry to obtain her.

The Chineſe women, even of the firſt rank, ſeldom quit their apartment, which is ſituated in the moſt retired part of the houſe, and in which they are ſecluded from all ſociety but that of their domeſtics. The book of ceremonies requires that there ſhould be two apartments in every houſe; the exterior one for the huſband, the interior for the wife. They muſt even be ſeparated by a wall or wooden partition, the door of which is carefully guarded; nor is the huſband at liberty to enter thewife's apartment, or ſhe to quit it, without ſufficient reaſon. According to the ſame book, the prattling and loquacity of a woman are reckoned ſufficient grounds for a divorce. A woman, however, cannot be divorced on any account, if ſhe loſes her parents after marriage, or if ſhe has worn three years mourning for the loſs of her huſband, father, or mother.

A widow of any rank above the common, who has children, ſeldom enters a ſecond time into the marriage ſtate, though thoſe of the ordinary rank generally do. The poorer ſort are not at liberty to follow their own inclination, but are ſold for the behoof of the parents of the deceaſed. As ſoon as the bargain is concluded, a couple of porters bring a chair, which is guarded by a number of truſty people. In this the widow is ſhut up, and thus conducted to her new huſband.

"Maſters (ſays Mr. Groſier), for the moſt part, are very deſirous of promoting marriage among their ſlaves, whatever Mr. Paw may ſay; who, without any foundation, has ventured boldly to aſſert the contrary. They have even very ſtrong motives to induce them to encourage theſe marriages; the children produced by them are ſtill their ſlaves; and, beſides their becoming new property to them, the fathers and mothers are thus more ſtrongly attached to their ſervice."

Concubinage is tolerated in China, though not authoriſed by any law. This privilege is granted only to the emperor, the princes of the blood, and mandarins; and none but the emperor is permitted to have more than one. The common people generally avail themſelves of the toleration granted them in this reſpect, and will have two or three concubines if they can afford it. They are, however, careful to excuſe themſelves as well as they can to their wives in this reſpect, pretending only a deſire of having many children, and a num- of women to attend their wives. Others, deſirous of having a male child, which perhaps their lawful wife cannot have, take a concubine for this reaſon only, and diſmiſs her as ſoon as their wiſhes are accompliſhed: they then permit her to marry whom ſhe pleaſes, and frequently even provide a huſband for her themſelves. Theſe concubines are almoſt all procured from two cities named Yang-tcheou and Sou-tcheou, where they are educated, and taught ſinging, dancing, muſic, and every accompliſhment ſuitable to women of quality, or which can render them agreeable and pleaſing. The greater part of them are purchaſed in other places, to be again diſpoſed of; and this is the principal branch of trade carried on by theſe two cities. Unlawful intrigues are ſeldom heard of in China. Whoever ſeduces the wife of another is puniſhed with death; and the ſame puniſhment is generally inflicted on the perſon who debauches a young woman.

From the accounts we have of the education of children in China, one might be apt to conclude, that, inſtead of being the ignorant ſuperſtitious race already deſcribed, they ought to be the moſt intelligent people in the world. The book of ceremonies directs the education of a child to commence as ſoon as it is born, and deſcribes exactly the qualities which its nurſe ought to have. She muſt ſpeak little, adhere ſtrictly

to truth, have a mild temper, behave with affability to her equals, and with reſpect to her ſuperiors. The child is taught to uſe the right hand as ſoon as it can put its hand to the mouth, and then it is weaned. At ſix years of age, if a male, he is taught the numbers moſt in uſe and made acquainted with the names of the principal parts of the world; at ſeven, he is ſeparated from his ſiſters, and no longer allowed to eat with them, nor to ſit down in their preſence; at eight, he is inſtructed in the rules of good breeding and politeneſs; at nine, he ſtudies the calendar; at ten, he is ſent to a public ſchool, where he learns to read, write, and caſt accounts; from thirteen to fifteen he is taught muſic, and every thing that he ſings conſiſts of moral precepts. It was formerly the cuſtom, that all the leſſons deſigned for the Chineſe youth were in verſe; and it is to this day lamented that the ſame cuſtom is not followed, as their education has ſince been rendered much more difficult and laborious.

At the age of fifteen, the Chineſe boys are taught to handle the bow and arrow, and to mount on horſeback; at twenty they receive the firſt cap, if they are thought to deſerve it, and they are permitted to wear ſilk dreſſes ornamented with furs; but before that period they are not allowed to wear any other thing than cotton.

Another method of initiating children into the principles of knowledge in this empire is, by ſelecting a number of characters expreſſive of the moſt common objects, engraving or painting them ſeparately on ſome kind of ſubſtance, and, under the thing repreſented, putting the name, which points out to the children the meaning of the word.

As the Chineſe have no proper alphabet, they repreſent almoſt every thing by different characters. The labour of their youth, therefore, is intolerable; being obliged to ſtudy many thouſand characters, each of which has a diſtinct and proper ſignification. Some idea of their difficulties may be obtained from what we are told by F. Martini, who aſſures us, that he was under the neceſſity of learning 60,000 different characters before he could read the Chineſe authors with tolerable eaſe.

The book firſt put into the hands of the Chineſe children is an abridgement, which points out what a child ought to learn, and the manner in which he ſhould be taught. This volume is a collection of ſhort ſentences, conſiſting of three or four verſes each, all of which rhyme; and they are obliged to give an account in the evening of what they have learned in the day. After this elementary treatiſe, they put into their hands the four books which contain the doctrines of Confucius and Mencius. The ſenſe and meaning of the work is never explained to them until they have got by heart all the characters, that is to ſay, all the words in the book; a method no doubt inconceivably diſguſting, and calculated utterly to deſtroy the genius of a boy, if he has any. While they are getting theſe characters by heart, indeed they are likewiſe employed in learning to form them with a pencil. For this purpoſe they are furniſhed with large leaves of paper, on which are written or printed with red ink very big characters; and all they are required to do is to cover thoſe red characters with black ink, and to follow exactly their ſhape and figure; which inſenſibly accuſtoms them to form the different ſtrokes. After this they are made to trace other characters, placed under the paper on which they write. Theſe are black, and much ſmaller than the other. It is a great advantage to the Chineſe literati to be able to paint characters well; and on this account they beſtow great pains in forming the hands of young people. This is of the utmoſt conſequence to literary ſtudents in the examinations which they are obliged to undergo before they can be admitted to the firſt degree. Du Halde gives a remarkable inſtance, viz. that "a candidate for degrees having, contrary to order, made uſe of an abbreviation in writing the character *ma*, which ſignifies an horſe, had the mortification of ſeeing his compoſition, though in other reſpects excellent, rejected merely on that account; beſides being ſeverely rallied by the mandarin, who told him that a horſe could not walk unleſs he had all his legs."

After the ſcholar has made himſelf maſter of the characters, he is then allowed to compoſe; but the ſubject of his compoſition is pointed out to him only

only by one word. Competitions are likewiſe eſtabliſhed in China, but moſt of them are of a private nature. Twenty or thirty families, who are all of the ſame name, and who conſequently have only one hall for the names of their anceſtors, agree among themſelves to ſend their children twice a month to this hall in order to compoſe. Each head of a family in turn gives the ſubject of this literary conteſt, and adjudges the prize; but this coſts him a dinner, which he muſt cauſe to be carried to the hall of competition. A fine of about ten-pence is impoſed on the parent of each ſcholar who abſents himſelf from this exerciſe.

Beſides theſe private competitions, every ſtudent is obliged to compete at leaſt twice a year under the inſpection of an inferior mandarin of letters, ſtiled Hio-konan. It frequently happens alſo, that the mandarins of letters order theſe ſtudents to be brought before them; to examine the progreſs they have made in their ſtudies, to excite a ſpirit of emulation among them, and make them give ſuch application as may qualify them for any employment in the ſtate. Even the governors of cities do not think it below their dignity to take this care upon themſelves; ordering all thoſe ſtudents who reſide near them to appear before their tribunal once a month: the author of the beſt compoſition is honoured with a prize, and the governor treats all the candidates on the day of competition at his own expence. In every city, town, and village, in China, there are ſchoolmaſters who teach ſuch ſciences as are known in that country. Parents poſſeſſed of a certain fortune provide maſters for their children, to attend and inſtruct them, to form their minds to virtue, and to initiate them in the rules of good breeding and the accuſtomed ceremonies, as well as to make them acquainted with the laws and hiſtory, if their age will admit. Theſe maſters have for the moſt part attained to one or two degrees among the literati, and not unfrequently arrive at the firſt employments of the ſtate.

The education of the Chineſe women is confined to giving them a taſte for ſolitude, and accuſtoming them to modeſty and ſilence; but, if their parents are rich, they are likewiſe inſtructed in ſuch accompliſhments as may render them agreeable to the other ſex.

There is little diſtinction in China between the ordinary dreſs of men and women. Rank and dignity are diſtinguiſhed by certain neceſſary ornaments; and the perſon would be ſeverely chaſtiſed who ſhould preſume to aſſume them without being properly authoriſed. The dreſs in general conſiſts of a long veſt which reaches to the ground. One part of this veſt, viz. that on the left ſide, folds over the other, and is faſtened to the right by four or five ſmall gold or ſilver buttons, placed at a little diſtance from one another. The ſleeves are wide towards the ſhoulder, growing narrower as they approach the wriſt, where they terminate in the form of a horſe-ſhoe, covering the hands entirely, and leaving nothing but the ends of the fingers to be ſeen. Round their middle they wear a large girdle of ſilk, the ends of which hang down to their knees. From this girdle is ſuſpended a ſheath, containing a knife and two of thoſe ſmall ſticks which they uſe as forks. Below this robe they wear a pair of drawers, in ſummer made of linen, and in winter of ſatin lined with fur, ſometimes of cotton, and in ſome of the northern provinces of ſkins. Theſe are ſometimes covered with another pair of white taffety. Their ſhirts are always very ſhort and wide, of different kinds of cloth, according to the ſeaſon. Under theſe they wear a ſilk net to prevent it from adhering to the ſkin. In warm weather they have their necks always bare: when it is cold, they wear a collar made of ſilk, ſable, or fox's ſkin, joined to their robe, which in winter is trimmed with ſheep's ſkin, or quilted with ſilk and cotton. That of people of quality is entirely lined with beautiful ſable-ſkins brought from Tartary, or with the fineſt fox's ſkin, trimmed with ſable: and in the ſpring it is lined with ermine. Above their robe they wear alſo a kind of ſurtout with wide ſleeves, but very ſhort, which is lined in the ſame manner. The emperor and princes of the blood only have a right to wear yellow; certain mandarins have liberty to wear ſatin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony; in general they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. The common people are al-

lowed to wear no other colours but blue or black; and their dreſs is always compoſed of plain cotton cloth.

Formerly the Chineſe were at great pains to preſerve their hair; but the Tartars, who ſubdued them, compelled them to cut off the greater part of it, and to alter the form of their clothes after the Tartar faſhion. This revolution in dreſs was not effected without bloodſhed, though the conqueror at the ſame time adopted in other reſpects the laws, manners, and cuſtoms, of the conquered people. Thus the Chineſe are painted as if bald, but they are not ſo naturally; that ſmall portion of hair which they preſerve behind, or on the tops of their heads, is all that is now allowed them. This they wear very long, and plait like a tail. In ſummer they wear a kind of cap ſhaped like an inverted cone, lined with ſatin, and covered with ratan or cane very prettily wrought The top terminates in a point, to which they fix a tuft of red hair, which ſpreads over it, and covers it to the brims. This hair grows between the legs of a kind of cow, and is capable of taking any colour, eſpecially a deep red. This ornament is much uſed, and any perſon who chooſes may wear it.

The mandarins and literati wear a cap of the ſame form as the foregoing, only it is lined with red ſatin, and covered on the outſide with white. A large tuft of the fineſt red ſilk is fixed over it, which is ſuffered to hang down or wave with the wind. People of diſtinction generally uſe the common cap when they mount on horſeback, or during bad weather; being better calculated to keep off rain, and ſhelter thoſe who wear it from the rays of the ſun. For winter they have another cap bordered with ſable, ermine, or fox's ſkin, and ornamented with a tuft of ſilk like the former. In theſe fur-trimmings they are very curious, ſometimes expending forty or fifty ounces of ſilver upon them.

The Chineſe people of rank never go abroad without boots made of ſatin or ſome other ſilk, and ſometimes of cotton, but always dyed. They have neither heel nor top, and are made to fit the foot with the greateſt exactneſs. When they travel on horſeback, however, they have others made of the ſkin of a cow or horſe, very pliable. Their boot-ſtockings are of ſilk ſtuff, quilted and lined with cotton, reaching above the top of their boot, and ornamented with a border of velvet or cloth. In ſummer they wear a cooler kind, and in their houſes a ſort of ſlippers made of ſilk ſtuff. The common people are contented with black ſlippers made of cotton cloth. The fan is alſo a neceſſary appendage of the Chineſe dreſs, and is reckoned equally neceſſary with the boots.

The dreſs of the women conſiſts of a long robe quite cloſe at top, and long enough to cover even their toes, with ſleeves ſo long that they would hang down upon the ground did they not take care to tuck them up; but their hands are ſeldom ſeen. The colour of their dreſſes is entirely arbitrary, but black and violet are generally choſen by thoſe advanced in life. The young ladies, like thoſe of Europe, make uſe of paint to give a bloom to their complexions; but this, though not the ſame with the kind uſed in Europe, agrees with it in the effect of ſoon wrinkling the ſkin. Their general head-dreſs conſiſts in arranging their hair in ſeveral curls, among which are interſperſed ſmall tufts of gold or ſilver flowers. According to Du Halde, ſome of them ornament their heads with the image of a fabulous bird, concerning which many ſtories are told. This is made of copper or ſilver gilt, its wings extended and lying pretty cloſe to the head-dreſs, embracing the upper part of their temples, while the long ſpreading tail forms a kind of plume on the top of the head. Its body is directly over the head, and the neck and bill hang down, the former being joined to the body by a concealed hinge, in order that it may play freely, and move about on the leaſt motion of the head. The whole bird adheres to the head by means of the claws, which are fixed in the hair.

Ladies of quality ſometimes wear ſeveral of theſe birds made up into a ſingle ornament, the workmanſhip of which is very expenſive. Young ladies wear alſo a crown made of paſteboard, the fore part of which riſes in a point above the forehead, and is covered with jewels. The reſt of the head is decorated with natural or artificial flowers, among

among which ſmall diamond-pins are interſperſed. The head-dreſs of the ordinary claſs of women, eſpecially when they are advanced in years, conſiſts only of a piece of very fine ſilk wrapped round their heads.

The Chineſe women have remarkably ſmall feet, which is accounted ſuch a valuable beauty, that they think they can never pay too dear for it. The feet of all female infants are bound very tight with bandages, and remain bound till the feet have done growing.

(To be continued.)

PROGRESS OF LUXURY.

LUXURY, among the Romans, prevailed to ſuch a degree, that ſeveral laws were made to ſuppreſs, or at leaſt diminiſh, it. The extravagance of the table began about the time of the battle of Actium, and continued in great exceſs till the reign of Galba. Peacocks, cranes of Malta, nightingales, veniſon, wild and tame fowl, were conſidered as delicacies. A profuſion of proviſions was the reigning taſte. Whole wild-boars were often ſerved up, and ſometimes they were filled with various ſmall animals, and birds of different kinds: this diſh they called the Trojan horſe, in alluſion to the wooden horſe filled with ſoldiers. Fowls and game of all ſorts were ſerved up in whole pyramids, piled up in diſhes as broad as moderate tables. Lucullus had a particular name for each apartment; and, in whatever room he ordered his ſervants to prepare the entertainment, they knew by the direction the expence to which they were to go. When he ſupped in the Apollo, the expence was fixed at fifty thouſand drachmæ, that is one thouſand two hundred and fifty pounds. Marc Antony provided eight boars for twelve gueſts. Vitellius had a large ſilver platter, ſaid to have coſt a million of ſeſterces, called Minerva's buckler. In this he blended together the livers of gilt-heads, the brains of pheaſants and peacocks, and the milts of lampreys. Caligula ſerved up to his gueſts pearls of great value diſſolved in vinegar? the ſame was done alſo by Clodius, the ſon of Æſop the tragedian. Apicius laid aſide ninety millions of ſeſterces, beſides a mighty revenue, for no other purpoſe but to be ſacrificed to luxury: finding himſelf involved in debt, he looked over his accounts, and, tho' he had the ſum of ten millions of ſeſterces ſtill left, he poiſoned himſelf for fear of being ſtarved to death!

The Roman laws to reſtrain luxury were, Lex Orchia, Fannia, Didia, Licinia, Cornelia, and others; but all theſe were too little; for, as riches increaſed among them, ſo did ſenſuality.

What were the ideas of luxury entertained in England about two centuries ago, may be gathered from the following paſſage of Holinſhed; who, in a diſcourſe prefixed to his hiſtory, ſpeaking of the increaſe of luxury, ſays, "Neither do I ſpeak this in reproach of any man, God is my judge; but to ſhew, that I do rejoice rather to ſee how God has bleſſed us with his good gifts, and to behold how that in a time wherein all things are grown to the moſt exceſſive prices, we yet do find the means to obtain and atchieve ſuch furniture as heretofore was impoſſible. There are old men yet dwelling in the village where I remain, which have noted three things to be marvelouſly altered in England within their ſound remembrance. One is the multitude of chimneys lately erected; whereas in their young days there were not above two or three, if ſo many, in moſt uplandiſh towns of the realm (the religious houſes, and manor-places of their lords, always excepted, and peradventure ſome great perſonages), but each made his fire againſt a reredoſs [ſkreen] in the hall where he dreſſed his meat and dined.—The ſecond is the great amendment of lodging; for, ſaid they, our forefathers and we ourſelves have lain full oft upon ſtraw pallets covered only with a ſheet, under coverlits made of a dogſwaine or horharriots (to uſe their own terms), and a good log under their head inſtead of a bolſter. If it were ſo that the father or good man of the houſe had a mattreſs or flock bed and ſheets, a ſack of chaff to reſt his head upon, he thought himſelf to be as well lodged as the lord of the town. So well were they contented, that

that pillows (ſaid they) were thought meet only for women in childbed; as for ſervants, if they had any ſheet above them, it was well, for ſeldom had they any under their bodies to keep them from pricking ſtraws, that run oft thro' the canvas and their hardened hides.—The third thing they tell of, is the exchange of treene [wooden] platters into pewter, and wooden ſpoons into ſilver or tin: for ſo common were all ſorts of treene veſſels in old times, that a man ſhould hardly find four pieces of pewter (of which one was peradventure a ſalt) in a good farmer's houſe. Again, in times paſt, men were contented to dwell in houſes builded of ſallow, willow, &c. ſo that the uſe of oak was in a manner dedicated wholly unto churches, religious houſes, princes palaces, navigation, &c. But now willow, &c. are rejected, and nothing but oak any where regarded: and yet ſee the change, for, when our houſes were builded of willow, then had we oaken men; but now, that our houſes are come to be made of oak, our men are not only become willow, but a great many altogether of ſtraw, which is a ſore alteration. In theſe, the courage of the owner was a ſufficient defence to keep the houſe in ſafety; but now the aſſurance of the timber muſt defend the men from robbing. Now have we many chimneys, and yet our tenderlins complain of rheums, catarrhs, and poſes; then had we none but reredoſes, and our heads did never ach. For, as the ſmoke in thoſe days was ſuppoſed to be a ſufficient hardening for the timber of the houſe, ſo it was reputed a far better medicine to keep the good man and his family from the quaks or poſe; wherewith, as then, very few were acquainted. Again, our pewterers in time paſt employed the uſe of pewter only upon diſhes and pots, and a few other trifles for ſervice; whereas now they are grown into ſuch exquiſite cunning, that they can in a manner imitate by infuſion any form or faſhion of cup, diſh, bowl, or goblet, which is made by the goldſmiths craft, though they be ever ſo curious and very artificially forged. In ſome places beyond the ſea, a garniſh of good flat Engliſh pewter (I ſay flat, becauſe diſhes and platters in my time began to be made deep, and like baſons, and are indeed more convenient both for ſauce and keeping the meat warm) is eſteemed ſo precious as the like number of veſſels that are made of ſilver."

Particular inſtances of luxury in eating, however, might be adduced from an early period, ſurpaſſing even the extravagance of the Romans. Thus, in the 10th year of the reign of Edward IV. 1470, George Nevill, brother to the Earl of Warwick, at his inſtalment into the archiepiſcopal ſee of York, entertained moſt of the nobility and principal clergy, when his bill of fare was 300 quarters of wheat, 350 tons of ale, 104 tuns of wine, a pipe of ſpiced wine, 80 fat oxen, ſix wild bulls, 1004 wethers, 300 hogs, 300 calves, 3000 geeſe, 3000 capons, 300 pigs, 100 peacocks, 200 cranes, 200 kids, 2000 chickens, 4000 pigeons, 4000 rabbits, 204 bitterns, 4000 ducks, 200 pheaſants, 500 partridges, 2000 woodcocks, 400 plovers, 100 curlews, 100 quails, 1000 egrets, 200 rees, 400 bucks, does, and roebucks, 1506 hot veniſon paſties, 4000 cold ditto, 1000 diſhes of jelly parted, 4000 diſhes of jelly plain, 4000 cold cuſtards, 2000 hot cuſtards, 300 pikes, 300 breams, eight ſeals, four porpuſſes, 400 tarts. At this feaſt the Earl of Warwick was ſteward, the Earl of Bedford treaſurer, and Lord Haſtings comptroller, with many more noble officers; 1000 ſervitors, 62 cooks, 515 menial apparitors in the kitchen.—But ſuch was the fate of the man, that after his extreme prodigality he died in the moſt abject but unpitied poverty, *vinctus jacuit in ſumma inopia*.

And as to dreſs, luxury in that article ſeems to have attained a great height long before Holinſhed's time: for, in the reign of Edward III. we find no fewer than ſeven ſumptuary laws paſſed in one ſeſſion of parliament to reſtrain it. It was enacted, that men-ſervants of lords, as alſo of tradeſmen and artiſans, ſhall be content with one meal of fiſh or fleſh every day; and the other meals, daily, ſhall be of milk, cheeſe, butter, and the like. Neither ſhall they uſe any ornaments of gold, ſilk, or embroidery; nor their wives and daughters any veils above the price of twelve-pence. Artiſans and yeomen ſhall not wear cloth above forty ſhillings the whole piece (the fineſt then being about

about ſix pounds the whole piece), nor the ornaments before named. Nor the women any veils of ſilk, but only thoſe of thread made in England. Gentlemen under the degree of knights, not having 100l. yearly in land, ſhall not wear any cloth above 4½ marks the whole piece. Neither ſhall they or their females uſe cloth of gold, ſilver, or embroidery, &c. But eſquires, having two hundred pounds per annum or upwards of rent, may wear clothes of five marks the whole piece of cloth; and they and their females may alſo wear ſtuff of ſilk, ſilver, ribbons, girdles, or furs. Merchants, citizens, burghers, and artificers of tradeſmen, as well of London as elſewhere, who have goods and chattels of the clear value of five hundred pounds, and their females, may wear as is allowed to gentlemen and eſquires of one hundred pounds per annum. And merchants, citizens, and burgeſſes, worth above one thouſand pounds in goods and chattels, may (and their females) wear the ſame as gentlemen of two hundred pounds per annum. Knights of two hundred marks yearly may wear cloth of ſix marks the cloth, but no higher; but no cloth of gold, nor furred with ermine; but all knights and ladies having above four hundred marks yearly, up to one thouſand pounds per annum, may wear as they pleaſe, ermine excepted; and they may wear ornaments of pearl and preciouſtones for their heads only. Clerks having degrees in cathedrals, colleges, &c. may wear as knights and eſquires of the ſame income. Plowmen, carters, ſhepherds, and ſuch like, not having forty ſhillings value in goods or chattels ſhall wear no fort of cloth but blanket and ruſſet-lawn of twelve-pence, and ſhall wear girdles and belts; and they ſhall only eat and drink ſuitable to their ſtations. And whoſoever uſes other apparel than is preſcribed by the above laws ſhall forfeit the ſame.

Concerning the general utility of luxury to a ſtate, there is much controverſy among the political writers. Baron Monteſquieu lays it down, that luxury is neceſſary in monarchies, as in France; but ruinous to democracies, as in Holland. With regard therefore to Britain, whoſe government is compounded of both ſpecies, it is held to be a dubious queſtion, how far private luxury is a public evil: and, as ſuch, cogniſable by public laws. And indeed our legiſlators have ſeveral times changed their ſentiments as to this point; for formerly there were a number of penal laws exiſting to reſtrain exceſs in apparel, chiefly made in the reigns of Edward III. IV. and Henry VIII. a ſpecimen of which we have inſerted above. But all of them it appeared expedient to repeal at an after-period. In fact, although luxury will of neceſſity increaſe according to the influx of wealth, it may not be for the general benefit of commerce to impoſe, as in the above-cited laws, an abſolute prohibition of it: yet, for the good of the public, it may be neceſſary that ſuch as go beyond proper bounds in eating, drinking, and wearing what by no means is ſuitable to their ſtation, ſhould be taxed accordingly, could it be done without including thoſe who have a better title to ſuch indulgence. This is certainly, however, a point which ſhould be maturely weighed before executed; and, in mercantile countries at leaſt, ſuch reſtraints may be found prejudicial, moſt likely impracticable, eſpecially where true liberty is eſtabliſhed. Sir W. Temple obſerves, ſpeaking of the trade and riches, and at the ſame time of the frugality, of the Hollanders, "That ſome of our maxims are not ſo certain as current in politics: as that encouragement of exceſs and luxury, if employed in the conſumption of native commodities, is of advantage to trade. It may be ſo to that which impoveriſhes, but not to that which enriches, a country. It is indeed leſs prejudicial, if it lies in native than in foreign wares; but the humour of luxury and expence cannot ſtop at certain bounds; what begins in native will end in foreign commodities: and, though the example ariſe among idle perſons, yet the imitation will run into all degrees, even of thoſe men by whoſe induſtry the nation ſubſiſts. And beſides, the more of our own we ſpend, the leſs ſhall we have to ſend abroad; and ſo it will come to paſs, that, while we drive a vaſt trade, yet, by buying much more than we ſell, we ſhall come to be poor at laſt."

CAPTURE

CAPTURE of SAVENDROOG, an impregnable HILL-FORT of TIPPOO SAIB, by the MARQUIS CORNWALLIS. Illuſtrated with a beautiful Engraving.

SAVENDROOG is one of the moſt formidable hill-forts in the whole of Tippoo's dominions. It is indeed a vaſt mountain of rock, and is reckoned to riſe above half a mile in perpendicular height, from a baſe of eight or ten miles in circumference. Embraced by walls on every ſide, and defended by croſs walls and barriers wherever it was deemed acceſſible, this huge mountain had the farther advantage of being divided above by a chaſm which ſeparates the upper part into two hills, which, having each their defences, form two citadels capable of being maintained independent of the lower work, and, affording a ſecure retreat, ſhould encourage the garriſon to hold out to the laſt extremity.

Lieut.-colonel Stuart, who commanded the right wing of the Britiſh, and, in the firſt campaign, had been employed in reducing the forts of Dindigul and Paulgautchery, was deſtined to command at the ſiege of Savendroog, and pitched his camp, on the 10th of December, within three miles of the north ſide of the rock, the quarter from which the chief engineer had propoſed to carry on the attack. The force ſent with Colonel Stuart conſiſted of the 52d and 72d regiments, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Neſbitt, and three battalions of ſepoys. Major Montague, in command of the artillery, had a park of four iron eighteen and four iron twelve pounders, and two howitzers, beſides the field-pieces of the corps.

This ſtupendous fortreſs, ſo difficult of approach, is no leſs famed for its noxious atmoſphere, occaſioned by the ſurrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful ſize and ſtrength; and is ſaid to have derived its name of Savendroog, or the Rock of Death, from its fatal climate.

The flank companies of the 71ſt and 76th regiments having been ſent from camp to join the detachment, and every thing being in readineſs, the morning of the 21ſt of December was fixed for the aſſault.

At eleven o'clock, on a ſignal of two guns being fired from the batteries, the flank companies, followed by the 52d and 72d regiments, advanced to the aſſault; the band of the 52d regiment playing, "Britons, ſtrike home!" while the grenadiers and light infantry mounted the breach.

The road, or pathway, from the breach to the weſtern wall being not only extremely ſteep, but narrow, the enemy who fled from the breach impeded each other, and a few well-directed ſhot from the batteries, at that moment, did execution, and increaſed their confuſion. Captain Monſon, with his own light company of the 52d regiment, and a ſerjeant and twelve grenadiers of the 71ſt regiment, preſſed ſo hard, that they entered the different barriers along with the enemy, and, killing a number of them, among whom was the ſecond killedar, gained poſſeſſion of the top of the mountain, where the head killedar was made priſoner. So cloſe and critical was the purſuit, that the ſerjeant of the 71ſt regiment, when at ſome diſtance, ſhot the man who was ſhutting the firſt gate. Above a hundred of the enemy were killed on the weſtern-hill, and ſeveral fell down the precipices in eſcaping from the aſſailants. The priſoners were few, who ſaid the garriſon had conſiſted of one thouſand five hundred; but that many had deſerted during the ſiege. Thus, in leſs than an hour, in open day, the ſtupendous and hitherto-deemed impregnable fortreſs of Savendroog was ſtormed without the loſs of a man, only one private ſoldier having been wounded in the aſſault!

More full and entertaining particulars of the ſiege, &c. will be given in its proper place, in the annexed Hiſtory of the Wars of England.

☞ The elegant Portrait of CARACTACUS King of the Britons, is to be placed oppoſite page 56 of the HISTORY of the WARS of ENGLAND, where the noble Deeds of that heroic Prince are faithfully recorded.

POETRY.

POETRY.

THE PROXY.

A NEW BALLAD.

SURVEY the conduct of mankind,
Unleſs it too much ſhocks ye;
His duty no one does, you'll find,
For all is done by proxy.

The king, God bleſs him! ſteers the helm,
And Britain, firm as rock, ſee!
Sails ſteadily; yet ſtill his realm
Is manag'd all by proxy.

'Tis Pitt (with Howe and ſome few more)
From cut-throats ſafely locks ye:
And keeps ſecure the Britiſh ſhore—
But they too act by proxy.

Our admirals and gen'rals fight,
Who never field or dock ſee;
But plagu'd with gout, keep out of ſight,
And ſail or fight—by proxy.

To every office ſhould you go,
The principal but mocks ye;
He's at his country-ſeat, I trow—
His buſineſs's done by proxy.

Your banker ſafely keeps your treaſure,
Which, rolling in the ſtocks, he
Makes uſe of for his private pleaſure—
His paper is his proxy.

My lord o'er Europe loves to roam,
Attended by his doxy,
And leaves her ladyſhip at home:
His duty's done by proxy.

Your butlers and your grooms have wives
In ſilks and Holland ſmocks, ſee!
What wonder then they clean your knives
And dreſs your horſe—by proxy.

"Pray where, John, does the rector live,
So fam'd for orthodoxy?"
'At Lunnon, maſter, I believe,
But preaches here—by proxy.

He ſtudies politics, I hear:
He'll ſhoot—or hunt—or box ye,
And ſildom goes to church, I fear—
But ſays his prayers by proxy.'

"Well, farmer, you ſit by your fire,
Your man in dirty frock, ſee,
Does all your work for ſlender hire—
You plow and ſow by proxy.

Your ſhepherd ſleeps upon the ground,
To watch his ſtraggling flock, ſee!
But where, alas! would they be found,
But for the dog—his proxy?"

My chimney ſweeper, in yon court,
His pipe all day he cocks ye;
While half-ſtarv'd imps (for "that's
your ſort,")
Do all his work by proxy,

In every poſt of church and ſtate
Of deputies what flocks! ſee:
Why ſhould it then ſurpriſe create
If they go t'heaven by proxy?

SONNET, by CHARLOTTE SMITH.

YE ſhady groves, to your receſs
I bring a heart o'ercharg'd with woes,
To try if haply my diſtreſs
May in your ſilence find repoſe.

Thoſe objects that make others bleſt
No more their wonted pleaſure give;
Peace has long flown my troubled breaſt,
And hateful to myſelf I live.

My darling ——, my cheriſhed flame,
Whiſpers ſometimes perhaps ſhe's here;
Inceſſant I repeat her name,
Although I know ſhe is not near.

Ye trees, how alter'd in my ſight
Since firſt your leafy ſhade ye ſpread;
Ye winged moments of delight,
How ſwift, how rapidly, ye fled!

Ah! tell me then, my leafy friends,
If I again content ſhall know;
Echo alone my plaints attends,
And ſhe relentleſs anſwers no.

A plaintive murmur ſooths my ear,
A ſound that ſeems like me to moan:
Perhaps a gentle ſigh I hear
Breath'd by my love for my return.

Ah! by my wiſhes I'm miſled;
It is yon ſtream, that, winding flow
And bubbling o'er its flinty bed,
In pity weeps my heart-felt woe.

Should I return I know my doom;
Yet till I'm ſtretch'd on my cold bier,
One hope remains, that o'er my tomb
My love will ſhed a pitying tear.

EPIGRAMME.

BLAISE, voyant à l'agonie
Lucas, qui lui devoit cent francs,
Avec empreſſement lui dit,
"Payez-moi vite, il eſt tems."
"Laiſſez-moi mourir à mon aiſe,"
Repondit froidement Lucas.—
"Horbleu! mais tu ne mourras pas
Que tu ne m'as payé," dit Blaiſe.

FOREIGN NEWS.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

WHITEHALL, *Nov.* 2.

BY intelligence received from the Earl of Yarmouth, dated Brumpt, Auſtrian head-quarters, October 20, it appears, that on the morning of the 17th, General Wurmſer, having received information that Haguenau had ſurrendered to the advanced corps under General Mezaroes, he immediately put the bulk of his army in motion, and arrived there that night, a few hours after it had been evacuated by the enemy, who had made ſo precipitate a retreat as to neglect breaking down the wooden bridges over which the artillery was to paſs. That, on the 18th, the French encamped on the right bank of the Zorn, a ſmall river which runs through Brumpt; but, on perceiving ſome interval between Gen. Mezaroes' advanced corps, conſiſting of about 6000 men, and the other columns of the army, they croſſed the river, and attacked him with their whole force, in the evident expectation of turning his flank, and cutting him off from the reſt of the army. The action laſted ſeven hours; but, upon perceiving the reſt of the Auſtrian army move forward, the French re-croſſed the river, and evacuated the heights and town of Brumpt, of which the Auſtrians took poſſeſſion. The loſs on the part of the French is eſtimated at about 800 men, and that of the Auſtrians nearly half that number, in killed and wounded. That the Prince of Waldeck had advanced with his corps from Seltz, and marched along the banks of the Rhine. That he had compelled the ſurrender of Druzenheim, and, after driving in the garriſon of Fort Louis, with ſome loſs, had inveſted the place. That, in the courſe of the night, the French had abandoned their former poſition on the Zorn, and retreated under the cannon of Straſbourg. That General Wurmſer was at the diſtance of nine Engliſh miles from that place.

In addition to the accounts already publiſhed of forcing the lines of Weiſſembourg and Lauterbourg, it appears, that the Auſtrians had between 7 and 800 killed and wounded; and that the loſs of the French amounted to between 3 and 4000 men killed, from 5 to 600 priſoners, and 26 pieces of cannon, with their ammunition, waggons, and horſes. The retreat of the French on this occaſion was greatly favoured by a thick fog.

WHITEHALL, *Nov.* 2.

Extract of a Letter from Sir James Murray, Bart. to Mr. Secretary Dundas, dated Tournay, Oct. 24.

I have the honour to inform you, that the enemy made, on the 21ſt, an attack upon the advanced poſts of the camp at Menin, particularly thoſe of Werwick and Halouin. They were every where repulſed; but the day following they renewed the attack with great violence, and at length ſucceeded in gaining poſſeſſion of Werwick.

Menin being by this means expoſed, Lieut.-general Erbach, who commanded there, found it neceſſary to evacuate the town, and to retire with his troops upon Courtray. This corps was compoſed of Auſtrian and Hanoverian troops. The particulars of their loſs are not yet come to my knowledge; but I underſtand that it amounts, in killed and wounded, to near 300 men.

The enemy likewiſe attacked the troops poſted at the camp of Ciſoing upon the 21ſt, 22d, and 23d; but they were repulſed each day with loſs, having had upon the 22d near 400 men killed and taken. The Inniſkilling and the 16th regiment of light dragoons behaved with great ſpirit on this occaſion. The attacks of the enemy were chiefly directed againſt Nomain upon the left, and Willem upon the right, of both of which they at different times gained poſſeſſion, but were again driven from them by reinforcements from the camp.

This day the enemy attacked the poſt of Major-general Kray, at Orchies. No further particulars are at preſent known than that they have been repulſed with the loſs of five pieces of cannon.

October 25. Accounts have been received that the enemy advanced on the 22d upon Furnes, which was abandoned at their approach. They then proceeded againſt Nieuport; but, recourſe having been had to the inundations of which the country near that place is ſuſceptible, they were obliged to retreat.

Extract of a Letter from Sir James Murray, Bart. to Mr. Secretary Dundas, dated Camphin, Oct. 29.

I had the honour of informing you of his royal highneſs's intention to make every poſſible effort for the protection of Auſtrian Flanders, which ſeemed to be in imminent danger from the attempts of the

the enemy upon the whole frontier of that province.

Conſiſtent with this intention, his royal highneſs determined to attack the enemy at Menin. Upon the morning of the 27th his royal highneſs marched with the troops, which were encamped before Tournay, to take up the poſition he had formerly occupied between Baiſieux and Ciſoing, and which had been left ſome days before. Different poſts, which the enemy had eſtabliſhed upon the Marque, were driven back. A picquet of ſix officers and 150 men, which had been poſted at the village of Saingain, retreated acroſs the plain towards Lezennes; they had nearly reached the laſt-mentioned village, when a ſquadron of the 2d dragoon-guards, headed by Major Craufurd, advancing with rapidity, gained their right flank, and charged them with ſo much vigour and ſucceſs that not a ſingle man eſcaped; 104 priſoners were taken, and the reſt killed on the ſpot. The ſquadron of the dragoon-guards had only two killed and one wounded.

In order to favour this enterpriſe, by drawing the attention of the enemy to another quarter, his royal highneſs ſent on the evening of the 28th two battalions of Auſtrian infantry, and ſome light troops, with two twelve-pounders and two howitzers, under the command of Major-general Werneck, and two battalions of Britiſh infantry, (the flank battalion and that of the 3d regiment of guards, with one ſquadron of the 7th and one of the 75th light-dragoons, with two twelve-pounders and two howitzers likewiſe,) to attack Lannoy, which the enemy had entrenched and occupied with 1500 men.

Major-general Abercrombie commanded this detachment; and he had orders to expoſe the troops as little as poſſible, but to confine the attack to a cannonade, until the enemy ſhould be driven from their poſt.

This plan had the deſired ſucceſs. After reſiſting ſome time the heavy and well-directed fire of the Britiſh and Auſtrian artillery, which was gradually advanced to within a very ſmall diſtance of the town, the French gave way, retiring in great diſorder, part of them towards Liſle, and part towards Roubaix. They were purſued with great ſpirit by Lieutenant-colonel Churchill, at the head of two ſquadrons of light-dragoons, who killed and wounded near 100 of them, and took 59 priſoners. Several others were killed and taken by a party of Auſtrian infantry, who entered the town. There were taken in all about 150 priſoners, and five pieces of cannon, beſides ſeveral tumbrils and baggage-waggons. The killed are ſuppoſed to have amounted to between 2 and 300.

About the concluſion of this affair, accounts were received that the enemy had evacuated Menin the preceding night, and that they had the appearance of intending to give up their attack upon Ypres. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) JAMES MURRAY.

Return of the Killed and Wounded of the Britiſh Detachment at the Attack of Lannoy.

Total: 1 captain, 1 rank and file, killed; 2 lieutenants, 7 rank and file, wounded.

Names of Officers killed and wounded.

Royal Engineers. Capt. Sutherland killed, Lieutenant Rutherford wounded.

Royal Artillery. Lieutenant Thornton wounded.

WHITEHALL, *Nov.* 2.

The following diſpatches from Sir Charles Grey, K. B. and Rear-admiral M'Bride, were yeſterday evening received at the office of the Right Honourable Henry Dundas.

OSTEND, *Oct.* 29, 3 *o'clock P. M.*

Sir, I had the honour of writing to you yeſterday morning from Deal, to inform you of my arrival there, and of my intention immediately to embark for this place. We got under way between 10 and 11 o'clock, and about half paſt 7 in the evening came to an anchor in Nieuport roads. In conſequence of the accounts I received there from Captain Murray of the ſtate of that place, and the force brought againſt it by the French, I judged it neceſſary immediately to diſpatch Major-general Dundas to Oſtend, with orders to take under his command the 42d regiment and four companies of light infantry, and to march with all poſſible expedition to the ſupport of the garriſon; at the ſame time ſending Colonel Symes to Nieuport, to give the commander notice of my arrival, and of the intended reinforcements.

The enemy kept up a conſtant fire during the greateſt part of the night, which was anſwered by the garriſon, and diſtinctly ſeen from the Quebec. At about two this morning it became more violent, and continued with great briſkneſs on both ſides. When we paſſed Nieuport, about 10, we ſaw Major-general Dundas on his march, within two miles of the place; and I have this inſtant received a letter from him announcing his arrival. He ſays he finds every thing as well as he could expect; that the enemy threatened much, kept up a conſtant fire, and laſt night carried one of the towers, within 1700 yards of the place. He has made a requiſition of ſeveral articles neceſſary to the defence of the place, which I have ordered

ordered to be forwarded to him immediately. With the force now on foot, aſſiſted by the inundation, I hope it may be preſerved, and the further progreſs of the French on this ſide checked. Notwithſtanding the conſtant fire kept up by the enemy, I am happy to inform you that the loſs of the garriſon has hitherto been very inconſiderable; but I have yet received no regular returns.

The ſervice has derived the greateſt benefit from the zeal and activity of Rear-admiral M'Bride, Captain Murray, and the naval officers under his command.

A ſupply of ammunition, of which the garriſon was much in want, was this morning ſent from the fleet; and about 100 ſeamen, under Captain Rogers, have been landed, to aſſiſt in working at the batteries. Every commendation is due to the gallant defence made by Colonel Wurmb and the garriſon under his command. I have the honour to be, &c.

C. GREY.

OSTEND, *Oct.* 30.

Sir, My laſt diſpatch announced to you the ſituation of the garriſon of Nieuport, as far as I was informed of it, to the time of my departure for that place this morning. On my road thither I was met by ſeveral perſons, with the agreeable intelligence, that the French were retiring, which was confirmed on my arrival. They began their retreat in the night, and a part only of the rear-guard was viſible at day-break their morning. They returned along the road to Dunkirk, ſetting fire to every thing in their way.

I went with Major-general Dundas to viſit the poſts which they occupied, and, from the extent of their encampment, I ſhould imagine that their numbers could not have been leſs than was repreſented to us, about 8000. What loſs they may have ſuſtained during the ſiege I have no means of eſtimating: ours, as I have already had the pleaſure of informing you, was very inconſiderable. I now incloſe a regular return of that of the 42d and 53d regiments; and that of the Heſſians. The French have left behind them four 24-pounders and two mortars, as well as a great number of ſhot, ſhells, and intrenching tools. The whole were ſecured, and a great part brought into the town, before I left it. I have already ſpoken in commendation of the gallant behaviour of Colonel de Wurmb and the garriſon under his command; I cannot, however, help adding, upon a more exact knowledge of their ſituation when firſt attacked, that the ſafety of Nieuport is owing to their courage and perſeverance in its defence, with means very diſproportionate to the force brought againſt them. The artillery, under Captain Bothwick, with the 53d regiment, whoſe loſs has been the greateſt, have been very much diſtinguiſhed; and I think it only an act of juſtice to mention, in terms of the higheſt approbation, Major Mathews, whoſe long ſervices and particular exertions on this occaſion will, I hope, recommend him to his majeſty's notice. I feel alſo that much is due to the zeal and intelligence with which Major-general Dundas undertook and executed the ſervice entruſted to him after his arrival at Nieuport, as well as to Colonel Symes and Captain Rogers, and the officers, marines, and ſeamen, from the fleet.

Return of the Killed and Wounded in the 42d and 53d Regiments of the Britiſh at the Siege of Nieuport.

Total: 1 ſubaltern, 12 rank and file, killed; 1 captain, two ſerjeants, 33 rank and file, wounded.

Names of Officers killed and wounded.

Lieutenant Latham, 53d, killed; Captain Ferguſon, do. wounded. C. GREY.

Return of Killed and Wounded of the Heſſian Troops, from the 22d to the 30th of Oct.

Total: 4 ſoldiers killed; 4 officers, 5 ſerjeants, 1 ſurgeon, 29 ſoldiers, wounded.

[This Gazette alſo contains a letter from Admiral M'Bride, dated Quebec, Oct. 31, off Nieuport, who, after giving an account ſimilar in ſubſtance to the preceding details, mentions as a poſtſcript —"I have the pleaſure to add, that the Auſtrians have driven the French from Furnes this morning."]

WHITEHALL, *Nov.* 4.

The following diſpatch was this morning received from Sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his royal highneſs the Duke of York, by the Rt. Hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

CAMPHIN, *Oct.* 30.

Sir, I have the honour to inform you of the ſucceſs of an attack upon Marchiennes, which by order of his royal highneſs took place laſt night.

Eight battalions were put under the command of Major-general Kray for this enterpriſe. They marched at midnight from Orchies in three columns, each column headed by two officers and ſixty volunteers, ſupported by 300 men. Theſe were not permitted to load. The reſt of the troops of the different columns, with their cannon, followed at ſome diſtance. A detachment from the corps of Major-general Otto, poſted by Denain, marched about the ſame time, formed in four columns in ſimilar order, that the town might

might be attacked at once on all ſides. The latter troops were diſcovered by the enemy's out-poſts, and prevented from penetrating by the oppoſition which they met with. Thoſe under General Kray, one column of which advanced upon the high road from Orchies, and the two others upon the left of it, got about two o'clock in the morning within a ſhort diſtance of the town before they were perceived.

The volunteers at the head of the column, which was upon the road, fell in with a picquet about 200 yards from the gate, which they ſurpriſed, killed the greater part of it, and purſued the reſt ſo cloſely that they entered the place along with them. The troops in the town made little reſiſtance. After being driven from the market-place, where they at firſt aſſembled, they retreated to a convent near it. They there propoſed terms of capitulation, which General Kray conſented to, as they ſurrendered priſoners of war, with the ſole condition of the officers being permitted to wear their ſwords.

There are 1629 priſoners, (officers included,) moſt of them troops of the line. There are likewiſe 12 pieces of cannon, and 22 or 23 tumbrils, taken. There are ſuppoſed to have been about 300 of the enemy killed. The loſs of Major-general Kray's corps is between 70 and 80 killed and wounded. The loſs upon Major-general Otto's ſide is unknown, but it is imagined not to be conſiderable. I have the honour to be, with the greateſt reſpect, Sir, your moſt obedient humble ſervant, JA. MURRAY.

Extract of a Letter from Sir James Murray, Bart. dated Camphin, Nov. 1.

Some of the light troops made yeſterday an attack upon the French poſts at Ors and Catillon-ſur-Sambre; in which, with very little loſs, they killed near 400 of the enemy, took about 100 priſoners, and two pieces of cannon.

PETERSBURGH, *Oct.* 11. Wedneſday laſt was celebrated the nuptials of his imperial highneſs the Great Duke Alexander Paulovich and her imperial highneſs the Great Ducheſs Eliz. Alexievna.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *Nov.* 9.

The diſpatches, of which the following are copies and extract, were this day received by Philip Stephens, Eſq. from the Rt. Hon. Lord Hood, commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Mediterranean.

VICTORY, Toulon-road, *Oct.* 6.

Sir, I have the honour to deſire you will be pleaſed to offer to the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty my ſincere congratulations on a very brilliant and complete victory obtained over the enemy, the 1ſt inſtant, upon the heights of Pharon. The Britiſh and Piedmonteſe troops compoſed the column under Lord Mulgrave, and led the way; but his lordſhip gives full credit to the ſpirit and exertion of the troops of every nation, and is loud in the praiſe of the Neapolitans, who greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. I tranſmit, for their lordſhips' farther information, an account of the killed, wounded, and miſſing. The action was ſhort, but hot. The enemy had upon the heights from 1800 to 2000 men, the flower of the eaſtern army, not a fourth part of which, we are well-informed, ever returned to head-quarters: for what did not fall by the bullet or bayonet broke their necks in tumbling headlong over the precipices in their flight.

In the night of the 30th a very important poſt, above Fort Pharon, was ſurpriſed and taken: the re-poſſeſſion of which being of ſo much conſequence, an attempt was immediately reſolved upon; and in order to enable Lord Mulgrave, Gen. Gravina, and Governor Elphinſtone, with the reſpective columns under their commands, to go out with the greater force, I undertook the care of Toulon and Fort La Malgue, and had a ſufficient number of good men on-ſhore within two hours after receiving notice of the ſaid diſaſter.

I am ſorry to inform their lordſhips of that gallant and able officer, Gen. Gravina, being wounded in the leg; and, although there is no doubt (as Dr. Harneſs aſſures me, who has the care of him) of his doing perfectly well, he will probably be confined ſome time, as the ball is lodged between the two bones.

His majeſty's ſhip Coloſſus returned to me on the 24th from Cagliari, and brought 350 good troops; and I expect 800 more from Conti in three or four days. The ſecond diviſion of Neapolitans, conſiſting of 2000, arrived laſt night, and the laſt 2000 were to leave Naples yeſterday. His Sicilian majeſty has manifeſted the greateſt readineſs and zeal in fulfilling the treaty, and has confided his ſhips and troops ſolely to my diſpoſal, which his majeſty has made known to me from under his own hand.

I have good reaſon to expect General O'Hara will be here in a very few days, with 12 or 1500 men from Gibraltar. He will be welcome to us. I have the honour to be, &c.

Philip Stephens, Eſq. HOOD.

Return

Return of Killed, Wounded, and Miſſing, at the taking of Pharon Redoubt, October 1, 1793.

Britiſh: 1 ſerjeant, 1 private, killed; 1 captain, 1 ſubaltern, 3 corporals, 27 privates, wounded; 2 privates miſſing.

Spaniſh: 1 field-officer, 3 privates, wounded.

Sardinian: 1 captain, 4 privates, killed; 1 field-officer, 2 captains, 2 ſubalterns, 2 ſerjeants, 3 corporals, 13 privates, wounded.

Neapolitan: 1 ſerjeant, 12 privates, wounded.

Names of Officers killed and wounded.

Britiſh: Captain O'Dogherty of the 69th regiment, and Lieutenant Carter of the marines, wounded.

Spaniſh: Brigadier-general Admiral Gravina, wounded.

Sardinian: Captain Le Chevalier Fabar, killed; Major and Commandant Monſieur Le Chevalier de St. Etienne, Capt. Monſieur Le Chevalier Grondona, Capt. Monſieur De Torricella, Lieut. Monſieur Le Chevalier de Blanc, and Lieut. Monſieur Le Chevalier Cerutti.

Priſoners taken.—1 Captain, 47 privates.

The enemy's loſs is ſuppoſed to have been about 1500 killed, wounded, and taken priſoners.

Extract of a Letter from Vice-Admiral Lord Hood to Mr. Stephens, dated Victory, Toulon-road, Oct. 6.

Sir, I beg you will be pleaſed to make known to the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that, upon receiving a preſſing requeſt from General Paoli for aſſiſtance, and informing me at the ſame time that even the appearance of a few ſhips would very eſſentially ſerve him, provided it ſhould not be judged expedient to make an attack by them on any of the forts, I therefore determined to ſend three ſhips, of the line and two frigates to him, and, as the ſeaſon was too far advanced for a ſecond-rate to go on that coaſt, I eſtabliſhed Capt. Linzee as a commodore, appointed Capt. Woodley his captain, and gave an order to Lord Amelius Beauclerk to command the Nemeſis.

ALCIDE, in the Gulph of St. Fiorenze.

MY LORD, *October*, 1, 1793.

I have the honour to inform your lordſhip, that, being joined by the Ardent on the 21ſt ult. and it being deemed practicable to make an attack by ſea upon the tower and redoubt of Fornili, (a poſt at the diſtance of two miles oppoſite the town of Fiorenze,) I immediately gave the neceſſary orders for the ſquadron to act, whenever the wind was ſufficiently ſteady for that purpoſe. On the 24th the Courageux joined, with proviſions from Leghorn; and on the night of the 27th the launches of the ſquadron cut out a veſſel, which has ſince been converted into a gun-boat. Having made ſeveral attempts (between the 21ſt and 30th ult.) to attack the above poſts, which were always fruſtrated by the wind dying away as ſoon as I drew into the gulph; and experience having pointed out the improbability of the wind's blowing ſteady in a gulph of ſuch depth, and ſurrounded by mountains of conſiderable height; it was deemed expedient to execute my intentions the following morning, by warping the Ardent during the night into a ſituation from whence ſhe could not only annoy the redoubt, but cover the approach of the ſquadron. Captain Sutton placed his ſhip with as much judgment and preciſion as if the ſervice had been executed during the day; and at half paſt three A. M. opened a fire, which was kept up without intermiſſion till nearly eight o'clock. By four o'clock the Alcide was in a ſituation to open her battery on the enemy's works; but being too cloſe to the Ardent, and a flaw of wind filling the ſails, endangered her ſhooting on the rocks before ſhe could be anchored with ſecurity. The ſails were inſtantly thrown aback, and boats were employed, towing, to extricate her from this difficulty. Captain Mathews, obſerving the Alcide's ſituation, very gallantly ſhot under her ſtern, to cover her, and occupied the ſtation I had intended to anchor in. As the ſituation of the Courageux prevented the Alcide from opening her fire, except at intervals, I ordered Captain Wolſeley to carry out warps, to move us into a more eligible ſituation, which ſervice was executed with great alacrity, and a ſpirited fire again opened on the enemy's poſts.

Although a cloſe and powerful cannonade had been kept up by the ſquadron till a quarter before eight, no viſible impreſſion was made; and Captain Sutton having reported the Ardent was much damaged, and that, in his opinion, there was no proſpect of ſucceſs; and Captain Woodley (who had been on-board the Courageux, to enquire into the ſtate of that ſhip) having brought a ſimilar report from Captain Mathews, who, as well as Captain Wolſeley and himſelf, agreed in the above opinion; I judged it adviſeable to make the ſignal for diſcontinuing the attack.

The Alcide is not materially damaged in her maſts or rigging; but the Ardent and Courageux have ſuffered conſiderably in

in both, from being expoſed to the raking fire of the town of Fiorenze, though every information had aſſured me the diſtance from that place was too great for guns to have any effect.—Our failure is not only to be imputed to the falſe intelligence reſpecting the range of cannon from the town of Fiorenze, but to the want of ardour on the part of the Corſicans, who had faithfully promiſed to ſtorm the poſts on the land-ſide, though they never made the ſmalleſt movement to effect that ſervice during the action.

Killed and Wounded on-board the different Ships of the Squadron under my Command.

Ardent. Mr. John Martin, midſhipman, and 13 ſeamen, killed; 17 ſeamen wounded.

Alcide. 9 ſeamen wounded.

Courageux. Mr. Ludlow Shiells, firſt lieutenant, and 1 ſeaman, killed; Mr. Wm. Hen. Daniel, ſecond lieutenant, and 12 ſeamen, wounded.

ROB. LINZEE.

VICTORY, Toulon-road, *Oct.* 1.

Sir, I have the honour to deſire you will acquaint the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that a very ſucceſsful ſortie was made in the night of the ninth, and herewith tranſmit Captain Brereton's account of it to Lord Mulgrave. But the enemy has ſince erected another battery, about two hundred yards to the ſouthward of the one deſtroyed, from which they have fired heavy cannon and ſhells all yeſterday, and are now doing ſo, but as yet have done us very little miſchief. I have the honour to be, &c. HOOD.

FORT MULGRAVE, Hauteur le Graſſe.

MY LORD, *October* 9, 1793.

Agreeable to your lordſhip's orders, and arrangements made for carrying them into execution, yeſterday, at half paſt twelve o'clock at night, we moved from this poſt; and, having formed a junction in the bottom with the marines and Piedmonteſe from the poſt of Cepet, we marched off from our right in one column, in order to inſure the greater regularity in a night-attack: our march to the top of the height, where the new-erected batteries of the enemy had been conſtructed, was performed with all poſſible order and expedition, the troops obſerving the greateſt ſilence, by which, with the aid of a French deſerter, who anſwered the centinels of the enemy as we paſſed by them, our advanced party arrived at the entrance into their firſt battery perfectly undiſcovered: the firſt centry having been put to death, the advanced party, compoſed of the grenadiers and light-infantry of the line of Britiſh, under the command of Capt. Stewart of the 25th regiment, very gallantly ruſhed in, and put every man to the bayonet who oppoſed them.

The remainder of the enemy that could get off retired to their ſecond battery, and, though moſt rapidly purſued, made a ſort of ſtand: but, the greater part of the detachment by this time having taken different poſitions of attack, the enemy were ſoon routed in all quarters, and in a quarter of an hour after we made ourſelves maſters of all their batteries on this height, and the ordnance mounted thereon. In the firſt battery they had mounted two 24-pounders on garriſon-carriages; on the ſecond battery one fine braſs 24-pounder, mounted on a high travelling-carriage, and two ſmaller guns; and in a third battery was mounted two thirteen-inch mortars, with a great deal of ammunition, ſuitable for their different pieces of ordnance. On the road we found one light travelling ſix-pounder. Immediately as the enemy retired and ceaſed firing, I poſted the troops round the centre of the hill, and placed guards at the leading avenues to it, while Lieut. Serocold of the navy, with the ſailors, &c. under his directions, ſet to work in deſtroying theſe different pieces of ordnance, by ſpiking the touch-holes of the guns and mortars, and ramming balls into the guns, breaking up their carriages, and deſtroying their ammunition. Had it been poſſible to have carried off any part of the above guns, &c. it ſhould have been done; but, from the precipices we were neceſſarily obliged to deſcend, and the broken narrow paths we had occaſion to paſs, in order to avoid expoſing ourſelves by day-light to the fire of two heavy batteries of the enemy at the windmills, I found it was impracticable even to carry off the field-piece; neither did I think it right to hazard remaining with the detachment (which did not exceed 408) on the height where the batteries were erected, there being no cover in the rear, and the force of the enemy immediately in our neighbourhood on heights above us equal to 12 or 1300 men, which might have cut us off before your lordſhip could have ſent a reinforcement to ſuſtain us from Toulon.—From theſe conſiderations, as ſoon as Lieutenant Serocold reported to me that he had rendered the different guns and mortars unſerviceable, having collected our killed and wounded, we marched back from our left about half paſt four in the morning, and reached this poſt about ſix o'clock. ROB. BRERETON.

Britiſh corps: 1 corporal, 3 privates, killed; 1 corporal, 6 privates, wounded.

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Deſerters, who came in yeſterday, report the enemy calculate their loſs, in killed, wounded, and miſſing, at near 200 men; and that one of the mortars had ſplit in their endeavour to clear it. I have the honour to be, &c.

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On the 15th ult. the French attacked a fort which we were erecting to deſtroy one of their batteries; two hundred men, conſiſting of Engliſh, Neapolitans, and Spaniſh, were engaged with very ſuperior forces. A conſiderable number of the French were killed in this attack; and the allies, we underſtand, loſt near one hundred men. Capt. Torriano, of the 30th, was killed in this affair.

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HISTORY OF THE CROISADES.

CROISADE or cruſade was a name given to the expeditions of the Chriſtians againſt the infidels for the conqueſt of Paleſtine. Theſe expeditions commenced in the year 1096. The foundation of them was a ſuperſtitious veneration for thoſe places where our Saviour performed his miracles, and accompliſhed the work of man's redemption. Jeruſalem had been taken, and Paleſtine conquered, by Omar the ſucceſſor of Abu Becr, who ſucceeded Mahomet himſelf. This proved a conſiderable interruption to the pilgrims, who flocked from all quarters to perform their devotions at the holy ſepulchre. They had, however, ſtill been allowed this liberty, on paying a ſmall tribute to the Saracen caliphs, who were not much inclined to moleſt them. But, in 1065, this city changed its maſters. The Turks took it from the Saracens; and, being much more fierce and barbarous than the former, the pilgrims now found they could no longer perform their devotions with the ſame ſafety they did before. An opinion was about this time alſo prevalent in Europe, which made theſe pilgrimages much more frequent than formerly. It was ſomehow or other imagined, that the thouſand years mentioned in the 20th chapter of the Revelations were fulfilled; that Chriſt was ſoon to make his appearance in Paleſtine, to judge the world; and conſequently that journeys to that country were in the higheſt degree meritorious, and even abſolutely neceſſary. The multitudes of pilgrims which now flocked to Paleſtine, meeting with a very rough reception from the Turks, filled all Europe with complaints againſt thoſe infidels, who profaned the holy city by their preſence, and derided the ſacred myſteries of Chriſtianity even in the place where they were fulfilled. Pope Gregory VII. had formed a deſign of uniting all the princes of Chriſtendom againſt the Mahometans; but his exorbitant encroachments upon the civil power of princes had created him ſo many enemies, and rendered his ſchemes ſo ſuſpicious, that he was not able to make great progreſs in this undertaking. The work was reſerved for a meaner inſtrument.

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newed their pathetic exhortations, the whole aſſembly, as if impelled by an immediate inſpiration, exclaimed with one voice, "It is the will of God! it is the will of God!" Theſe words were deemed ſo memorable, and ſo much the effect of a divine impulſe, that they were employed as the ſignal of rendezvous and battle in all future exploits of theſe adventurers. Men of all ranks now flew to arms with the utmoſt ardour, and a croſs was affixed to their right ſhoulder by all who inliſted in this holy enterprize.

At this time Europe was ſunk in the moſt profound ignorance and ſuperſtition. The eccleſiaſtics had gained the greateſt aſcendant over the human mind; and the people, who committed the moſt horrid crimes and diſorders, knew of no other expiation than the obſervances impoſed on them by their ſpiritual paſtors.

But, amidſt the abject ſuperſtition which now prevailed, the military ſpirit had alſo univerſally diffuſed itſelf; and, though not ſupported by art or diſcipline, was become the general paſſion of the nations governed by the feudal law. All the great lords poſſeſſed the right of peace and war. They were engaged in continual hoſtilities with one another: the open country was become a ſcene of outrage and diſorder: the cities, ſtill mean and poor, were neither guarded by walls nor protected by privileges. Every man was obliged to depend for ſafety on his own force, or his private alliances; and valour was the only excellence which was held in eſteem, or gave one man the pre-eminence above another. When all the particular ſuperſtitions, therefore, were here united in one great object, the ardour for private hoſtilities took the ſame direction; "and all Europe (as the princeſs Anna Comnena expreſſes herſelf), torn from its foundations, ſeemed ready to precipitate itſelf in one united body upon Aſia."

All orders of men, now deeming the croiſades the only road to heaven, were impatient to open the way with their ſwords to the holy city. Nobles, artiſans, peaſants, even prieſts, inrolled their names; and to decline this ſervice was branded with the reproach of impiety or cowardice. The nobles who inliſted themſelves were moved, by the romantic ſpirit of the age, to hope for opulent eſtabliſhments in the eaſt, the chief ſeat of arts and commerce at that time. In purſuit of theſe chimerical projects, they ſold at the loweſt price their ancient caſtles and inheritances, which had now loſt all value in their eyes. The infirm and aged contributed to the expedition by preſents and money; and many of them, not ſatisfied with this, attended it in perſon, being determined, if poſſible, to breathe their laſt in ſight of that city where their Saviour had died for them. Women themſelves, concealing their ſex under the diſguiſe of armour, attended the camp; and commonly forgot their duty ſtill more, by proſtituting themſelves to the army. The greateſt criminals were forward in a ſervice which they conſidered as an expiation for all crimes; and the moſt enormous diſorders were, during the courſe of theſe expeditions, committed by men inured to wickedneſs, encouraged by example, and impelled by neceſſity. The multitude of adventurers ſoon became ſo great, that their more ſagacious leaders became apprehenſive leſt the greatneſs of the armament would be the cauſe of its own diſappointment. For this reaſon they permitted an undiſciplined multitude, computed at three hundred thouſand men, to go before them under the command of Peter the hermit, and Gautier or Walter, ſurnamed the moneyleſs, from his being a ſoldier of fortune. Theſe took the road towards Conſtantinople through Hungary and Bulgaria; and, truſting that heaven, by ſupernatural aſſiſtance, would ſupply all their neceſſities, they made no proviſion for ſubſiſtence in their march. They ſoon found themſelves obliged to obtain by plunder what they vainly expected from miracles; and the enraged inhabitants of the countries through which they paſſed attacked the diſorderly multitude, and ſlaughtered them without reſiſtance. The more diſciplined armies followed after; and, paſſing the ſtraits at Conſtantinople, they were muſtered in the plains of Aſia, and amounted in the whole to 700,000 men.

The rage for conquering the holy land did not ceaſe with this expedition. It continued for very near two centuries, and eight different croiſades were

ſet

ſet on foot one after another. The firſt was in the year 1096, as already obſerved: the princes engaged in it were, Hugo, count of Vermandois, brother to Philip I. king of France; Robert, duke of Normandy; Robert, earl of Flanders; Raimond, earl of Toulouſe and St. Giles; Godfrey of Bouillon, duke of Lorrain, with his brothers Baldwin and Euſtace; Stephen, earl of Chartres and Blois; Hugo, count of St. Paul; with a great number of other lords. The general rendezvous was at Conſtantinople. In this expedition, the famous Godfrey beſieged and took the city of Nice. The city of Jeruſalem was taken by the confederated army, and Godfrey choſen king. The Chriſtians gained the famous battle of Aſcalon againſt the Soldan of Egypt; which put an end to the firſt croiſade.

The ſecond croiſade, in the year 1144, was headed by the emperor Conrad III. and Louis VII. king of France. The emperor's army was either deſtroyed by the enemy, or periſhed through the treachery of Manuel the Greek emperor; and the ſecond army, through the unfaithfulneſs of the Chriſtians of Syria, was forced to break up the ſiege of Damaſcus.

The third croiſade, in the year 1188, immediately followed the taking of Jeruſalem by Saladin the ſoldan of Egypt. The princes engaged in this expedition were, the emperor Frederic Barbaroſſa; Frederic, duke of Suabia, his ſecond ſon; Leopold, duke of Auſtria; Berthold, duke of Moravia; Herman, marquis of Baden; the counts of Naſſau, Thuringia, Maſſen, and Holland; and above ſixty other princes of the empire; with the biſhops of Beſançon, Cambray, Munſter, Oſnaburg, Miſſen, Paſſau, Viſburg, and ſeveral others. In this expedition, the emperor Frederic defeated the Soldan of Iconium; his ſon Frederic, joined by Guy Luſignan king of Jeruſalem, in vain endeavoured to take Acre or Ptolemais. During which tranſactions, Philip Auguſtus king of France, and Richard I. king of England, joined the croiſade; by which means the Chriſtian army conſiſted of 300,000 fighting men: but, great diſputes happening between the kings of France and England, the former quitted the holy land, and Richard concluded a peace with Saladin.

The fourth croiſade was undertaken in the year 1195, by the emperor Henry VI. after Saladin's death. In this expedition the Chriſtians gained ſeveral battles againſt the infidels, took a great many towns, and were in the way of ſucceſs, when the death of the emperor obliged them to quit the holy land, and to return into Germany.

The fifth croiſade was publiſhed, by order of Pope Innocent III. in 1198. Thoſe engaged in it made fruitleſs efforts for the recovery of the holy land; for, though John de Neule, who commanded the fleet equipped in Flanders, arrived at Ptolemais a little after Simon of Montfort, Renard of Dampierre, and others, yet the plague deſtroying many of them, and the reſt either returning or engaging in the petty quarrels of the Chriſtian princes, there was nothing done; ſo that the Soldan of Aleppo eaſily defeated their troops in 1204.

The ſixth croiſade began in 1228; in which the Chriſtians took the town of Damietta, but were forced to ſurrender it again. The next year the emperor Frederic made peace with the ſoldan for ten years. About 1240, Richard earl of Cornwall, and brother to Henry III. king of England, arrived in Paleſtine at the head of the Engliſh croiſade; but, finding it moſt advantageous to conclude a peace, he re-embarked, and ſteered towards Italy. In 1244, the Karaſmians, being driven out of Perſia by the Tartars, broke into Paleſtine, and gave the Chriſtians a general defeat near Gaza.

The ſeventh croiſade was headed by St. Louis, in the year 1249, who took the town of Damietta: but, a ſickneſs happening in the Chriſtian army, the king endeavoured a retreat; in which, being purſued by the infidels, moſt of his army were miſerably butchered, and himſelf and the nobility taken priſoners. Then a truce was agreed upon for ten years, and the king and lords ſet at liberty.

The eighth croiſade, in 1270, was headed by the ſame prince, who made himſelf maſter of the port and caſtle of Carthage, in Africa; but, dying in a

ſhort time, he left his army in a very ill condition. Soon after, the king of Sicily coming up with a good fleet, and joining Philip the Bold, ſon and ſucceſſor of Louis the king of Tunis, after ſeveral engagements with the Chriſtians, in which he was always worſted, deſired peace, which was granted upon conditions advantageous to the Chriſtians; after which both princes embarked for their own kingdoms. Prince Edward of England, who arrived at Tunis at the time of this treaty, ſailed towards Ptolemais, where he landed with a ſmall body of 300 Engliſh and French, and hindered Bendocdar from laying ſiege to Ptolemais; but, being obliged to quit the holy land to take poſſeſſion of the crown of England, this croiſade ended without contributing any thing to the recovery of the holy land. In 1291, the town of Acre, or Ptolemais, was taken and plundered by the Soldan of Egypt, and the Chriſtians quite driven out of Syria. There has been no croiſade ſince that time, though ſeveral popes have attempted to ſtir up the Chriſtians to ſuch an undertaking; particularly Nicholas IV. in 1292, and Clement V. in 1311.

Though theſe croiſades were effects of the moſt abſurd ſuperſtition, they tended greatly to promote the good of Europe. Multitudes indeed were deſtroyed. M. Voltaire computes the people who periſhed in the different expeditions at upwards of two millions. Many there were, however, who returned; and theſe, having converſed ſo long with people who lived in a much more magnificent way than themſelves, began to entertain ſome taſte for a refined and poliſhed way of life. Thus the barbariſm in which Europe had been ſo long immerſed began to wear off ſoon after this time. The princes alſo who remained at home found means to avail themſelves of the frenzy of the people. By the abſence of ſuch numbers of reſtleſs and martial adventurers peace was eſtabliſhed in their dominions. They alſo took the opportunity of annexing to their crown many conſiderable fiefs, either by purchaſe or by the extinction of the heirs; and thus the miſchiefs which muſt always attend feudal governments were conſiderably leſſened.

With regard to the bad ſucceſs of the croiſaders, it was ſcarce poſſible that any other thing could happen to them. The emperors of Conſtantinople, inſtead of aſſiſting, did all in their power to diſconcert their ſchemes. They were jealous, and not without reaſon, of ſuch an inundation of barbarians. Yet, had they conſidered their true intereſt, they would rather have aſſiſted them, or at leaſt ſtood neuter, than entered into alliances with the Turks. They followed the latter method, however, and were often of very great diſſervice to the weſtern adventurers, which at laſt occaſioned the loſs of their city. But the worſt enemies the croiſaders had, were their own internal feuds and diſſentions. They neither could agree while marching together in armies with a view to conqueſt, nor could they unite their conqueſts under one governmen after they had made them. They ſet up three ſmall eſtates, one at Jeruſalem, another at Antioch, and another at Edeſſa. Theſe ſtates, inſtead of aſſiſting, made war upon, each other, and on the Greek emperors; and thus became an eaſy prey to the common enemy. The horrid cruelties they committed alſo were ſuch as muſt have inſpired the Turks with the moſt invincible hatred againſt them, and made them reſiſt with the greateſt obſtinacy. They were ſuch as could have been committed only by barbarians inflamed with religious enthuſiaſm. When Jeruſalem was taken, not only the numerous garriſon was put to the ſword, but the inhabitants were maſſacred without mercy and without diſtinction. No age nor ſex was ſpared, not even ſucking children. According to Voltaire, ſome Chriſtians, who had been ſuffered by the Turks to live in that city, led the conquerors into the moſt private caves where women had concealed themſelves with their children, and not one of them was ſuffered to eſcape. What eminently ſhews the enthuſiaſm by which theſe conquerors were animated is their behaviour after this terrible ſlaughter. They marched over heaps of dead bodies towards the holy ſepulchre; and, while their hands were yet polluted with the blood of ſo many innocent perſons, ſung anthems to the common Saviour of mankind. Nay, ſo far did their religious

religious enthuſiaſm overcome their fury, that theſe ferocious conquerors now burſt into tears. If the abſurdity and wickedneſs of this conduct can be exceeded by any thing, it muſt be by what follows. In the year 1204, the frenzy of croiſading ſeized the children, who are ever ready to imitate what they ſee their parents engage themſelves in. Their childiſh folly was encouraged by the monks and ſchoolmaſters, and thouſands of theſe innocents were conducted from the houſes of their parents on the faith of theſe words, "Out of the mouth of babes and ſucklings haſt thou perfected praiſe." Their baſe conductors ſold a part of them to the Turks, and the reſt periſhed miſerably.

SUFFERINGS OF JAMES BRISTOW,

BELONGING TO THE BENGAL ARTILLERY, DURING TEN YEARS CAPTIVITY WITH HYDER ALLY AND TIPPOO SAIB.

[*Concluded from page* 200.]

ON the 22d of September, 1790, I finally left Seringapatam. Tippoo had no ſooner marched us out of the fort, than we were divided into three parties and ſeparated. It is needleſs to ſay, that our parting was truly affecting; we took leave of one another, as for the laſt time, like men that were to undergo certain death, after ſpending ten years of ſorrow together, and endeared to each other by mutual ſufferings: the human heart, under ſuch circumſtances, is always moſt ſuſceptible of friendſhip. Each man received, on this mournful occaſion, three ſeers of rice and three pice, which was the laſt ſubſiſtence I ever had from Tippoo.

One of our parties was detached to Narandroog, a hill-fort, about fourteen miles to the northward of Seringapatam, but intercepted by a range of hills; one to Sundradroog, another hill-fort, about ſixty miles north-eaſt of Seringapatam; and the laſt, to which I belonged, to Outradroog, alſo a very high and ſteep rock-fort, nearly fifty miles north-eaſt of the capital.

I was five days on the road to this place, and, when within a few miles of it, our guards, for what reaſon I cannot tell, were augmented to almoſt double their original number: they conducted us to the foot of the rock, where we entered a narrow and very ſteep path cut through a thick foreſt. We all ſuffered dreadfully in travelling barefooted up this rough and difficult aſcent, being very much hurried, notwithſtanding the weight and incumbrance of our irons. There are two or three forts on this rock, one above the other, and at the ſummit is a kind of battery. Some Malabar iron-guns joined with hoops, and two old Engliſh 9-pounders (which afterwards proved the ſource of my delivery), compoſed the whole artillery of the place.

Immediately on our arrival we were carried before the killadar, where we heard read the order which had accompanied us from Tippoo: it directed him "to guard us with vigilance and ſtrictneſs until farther inſtructions, to put us inſtantly in fetters, and to allow us no proviſions;" which plainly indicated that it was not intended we ſhould live many days.

Hope had never forſaken me during the whole ten years of my captivity; I conſtantly flattered myſelf with an opportunity to eſcape to an Engliſh ſettlement; but, at this juncture, I could not avoid yielding to deſpair, as no poſſibility of extricating myſelf from the preſent danger and confinement appeared. Had we even been unfettered we could not have got away, as the only communication with the rock was guarded by a line of ſentries, and to ſurvive long under ſuch circumſtances was folly to expect, as famine, if nothing elſe, muſt put a period to our lives. We had, however, reſolved to periſh our own way the moment any violence ſhould be offered us, and alſo to watch for an occaſion to attempt an eſcape, ſhould it be even that of attacking our guards when they came to examine our priſon; we thought we might ſafely venture on any ſtep, let it be ever ſo deſperate, as nothing could be riſked

riſked by a failure of ſucceſs, our lives being already forfeited: this reſolution enabled us to wait the iſſue of our fate with ſome compoſure.

Gratitude will not allow me in this place to withhold the juſt acknowledgments due from every one of us to Tippoo's Hindoo ſubjects; they conſtantly commiſerated the ſituation of the unfortunate European priſoners, and ſaved the lives of many by their timely humanity and aſſiſtance, when the unfeeling conqueror denied us food. The Kennaries, or natives of that country, are a very quiet, inoffenſive, and humane, race of men, many of whom do not even know the name of their ruler, or have the leaſt idea of the deſpotiſm they live under, being too remote from the immediate object of tyranny, and too much attached to peace and indolence, to be inquiſitive about who receives the revenues of the country, or who diſſipates them, conceiving the whole duty of their lives compriſed in tilling their grounds, paying their taxes, adoring their cows. This is the harmleſs and benevolent ſet of people who are the objects of Tippoo's perſecution, whom he labours to convert to Mahometaniſm, and whom he can only render unhappy if ever he effects his cruel purpoſe.

We had now been ſupported nearly five weeks almoſt entirely by the charity of the inhabitants of Outradroog, except ſometimes our miſery created the pity of our very guards, though accuſtomed to behold diſtreſs with indifference, and perpetrate murder at a ſingle nod. We began to wonder why our execution was ſo long delayed, when, by a moſt ſingular ſtroke of good fortune, it entered into the killadar's head to have his old and ruſty artillery repaired before his European priſoners were ſent out of the world. I happened to be the perſon appointed; and being inſtructed to ſurvey his guns, to report what they wanted, and to iſſue directions for putting them in ſerviceable order, he ſuffered me to be conducted to the different parts of the rock where theſe uſeleſs cannon were planted. It cannot be ſuſpected that I refuſed my aid, when it is remembered, that this was the only opportunity I ſhould have of reconnoitering the rock. I was accordingly laviſh in my promiſes, and the credulous killadar ſeemed highly pleaſed with the idea of having his cannon put in complete repair. I did not fail to avail myſelf of this occaſion, minutely to examine our gaol, as well as the foreſt below and the country ſurrounding it, obſerving only as much precaution as was neceſſary not to betray my deſign, or alarm the ſuſpicions of my guards. The different ſituations of the killadar's guns, which obliged me to go all round the rock, proved peculiarly uſeful, and enabled me to make the utmoſt advantage of my time.

When I returned to my companions, I faithfully related every thing, and informed them that I had ſeen a road by which we might deſcend the rock undiſcovered. It was immediately agreed that we ſhould, without loſing time, make the attempt. After a long diſcuſſion, and much conſultation, the only poſſible expedient was at laſt fixed on, and we came to a reſolution of breaching the mud wall of our priſon, and getting out in the night.

The only neceſſary precaution was ſilence. The nights on which we found the guards engaged in gambling, or other amuſements, were therefore aſſigned for our operations, to the accompliſhment of which, an old knife being the only inſtrument we had, the work of courſe required time and great patience: we had not proceeded many nights with digging and watching by turns, before we found this tool inſufficient for the purpoſe, the wall being uncommonly thick. We then thought of another way of effecting it, by conſtantly pouring water in the hole to moiſten the earth till ſoft enough to be dug out. This ſcheme promiſed better ſucceſs, and was leſs expoſed to diſcovery.

We employed twenty days in undermining and ſapping the wall, during which time we communicated our intentions to ſeven of our companions who were confined in an adjoining room, and with whom we were permitted to converſe during the day, and they accordingly commenced in like manner. As we had little to do all this time, we turned our thoughts towards liberating our legs; in this we likewiſe partly

partly ſucceeded, by means of a penknife. We heated the ſmall knife till it became red hot, then cut notches in it with the large one, and having converted it into a little ſaw, we worked inceſſantly when unobſerved, until we had cut quite through the rivets of one leg, which by that means could be diſengaged, and both the iron rings drawn on the other; by muffling the chains with old rags we could alſo prevent any clattering or noiſe.

The 27th of November was fixed upon for our grand attempt, and we gave notice to our companions in the next room, who joined us before eleven o'clock. We tied our rags about us, and provided ourſelves, each man, with a couple of raggy cakes, which had been laid up for the occaſion.—Being the perſon that was to guide the reſt, I crept out of the breach juſt at twelve o'clock, with a large knife in one hand and a ſtout ſtick in the other. As ſoon as the whole had got through, we aſſembled with all poſſible ſilence, and I, according to agreement, conducted the party over the mud wall that ſurrounded the area of the priſons, which was between ſeven and eight feet high on the inſide, but much lower on the outer on account of the riſing of the rock. There was another wall, called the fort-wall, about one hundred and fifty paces farther on, which entirely encompaſſed the top of the rock; and between theſe two walls was a guard placed over ſome native priſoners, which we could not avoid paſſing very near. A ſlight ſhower, which fell juſt at this criſis, proved therefore extremely favourable; the rain drove the ſentinels under cover, and we plainly ſaw them ſitting ſmoaking round a fire in the verandah of the priſon in great ſecurity. We were twelve in number, eleven Engliſhmen and a Frenchman, who had incurred Tippoo's diſpleaſure. We immediately directed our way thro' a thicket that environed the foot of the rock.

It had been determined, that we ſhould follow a northerly direction, in hopes of reaching the Nizam's dominions, but I miſſed my comrades the moment I entered the thicket, and never heard of them afterwards. About two o'clock I had diſengaged myſelf from the thicket; but the circumſtance of miſſing all the reſt of the party gave me much uneaſineſs, and naturally produced various conjectures, nor could I any other way account for ſo ſtrange a ſeparation, than by ſuppoſing that they had purpoſely deſerted me, fearing, perhaps, that I might prove an incumbrance to them the reſt of the journey, being in a very weak ſtate of body from a fever which had aſſailed me a few days before; I thought they might, for this reaſon, have judged it adviſeable to get rid of me, although they had ſhewn more conſideration for my quota of the cakes, which they took with them, concluding that I ſhould very ſoon have no occaſion for them. Ungrateful as this procedure may appear, I rather hoped it might be the cauſe of our ſeparation than that any miſchief had befallen them; for I no ſooner reached the country below, than I heard the ſound of trumpets and drums, which I conceived to be an alarm in the fort on miſſing us, and no doubt ſearch was immediately made. The loſs of my cakes gave me, I confeſs, very great concern, as I was extremely feeble, and very uncertain of ſoon meeting with any food; but reflecting that Providence alone could ſave me, and that it behoved me to make every perſonal exertion in my power before I gave up all for loſt, I continued my courſe on the plain which bounded the foreſt in a northerly direction. I can never be ſufficiently thankful for a very extraordinary and fortunate circumſtance, viz. that the fever, which had regularly viſited me for ſome time before, never returned after this day, though the anxiety and pain to which the laſt twenty-four hours had expoſed me could not be favourable to convaleſcence.

When I had advanced about five miles on the plain, I ſtumbled ſuddenly upon a mud-fort, which I never diſcovered until challenged by a ſentry on the walls. I judged it moſt prudent to return no anſwer, and, taking a circuit round it, I continued my courſe without farther interruption till day-break, when I found myſelf within 20 paces of two of Hyder's troopers, who were cooking their victuals on the bank of a tank; it was too late to ſhun them, I therefore reſolved to march boldly on,

hoping to paſs unnoticed as one of the country-people, for which reaſon I wrapped myſelf up in my blanket, and paſſed them near enough to overhear their converſation: they were juſt deliberating who I might be; one ſaid, "There certainly goes an European;" the other replied "You fool, from whence ſhould an European come here; don't you ſee it is a woman?" at that inſtant my irons happened accidentally to rattle, which luckily confirmed the laſt opinion, the noiſe being taken for the ſound of thoſe bangles, or braſs ornamental rings, which the women of India wear round their arms and legs; I was, in conſequence of this circumſtance, ſuffered to paſs without being interrupted, though not without having felt great anxiety for the ticklißneſs of my ſituation.

I walked on a couple of miles farther after this adventure to a wood, which I reached about ſun-riſe, and immediately found a ſpot pretty well covered, where I laid down to reſt for the day, judging it imprudent to travel but in the night.

I now diſcovered, that, unleſs I could diſengage myſelf from the irons, it would be in vain to think of proceeding, as, independent of what I ſuffered from them, my feet were extremely ſore from traverſing the ſharp-pointed ſtones of the rock. Fortunately the large knife had remained with me; with this I fell to work, and happily, before night ſet in, had totally removed the fetters. It was ſun-ſet when I reſumed my courſe; and I reached about midnight a range of hills that run between Bangalore and Seringapatam in an eaſterly direction, and which I had taken notice of before dark. I halted here, having to aſcend the hills, which were very rough, and overſpread with thickets that rendered the paſſage undiſcernible in the dark. Four days did I wander amongſt theſe huge mountains and craggy hills, without meeting with any food, or even a drop of water, though I had been leſs cautious with reſpect to the time of travelling, finding no traces at all of human beings.

Next morning, which was the 4th of December, I roſe with a very miſerable proſpect, but, tottering along, I was ſo fortunate, almoſt immediately, as to diſcern a hamlet of a few huts amongſt the hills! This unexpected ſight gave me new animation, knowing very well that I was in no danger from people with whoſe charitable diſpoſitions I was well acquainted, and who ſeemed as dropt from heaven for my ſuccour; underſtanding, beſides, the Kennary language, I had it in my power to paſs for any body I pleaſed, and, ſhould they even diſcover who I was, there was no room for apprehending they would hurt me; ſuch is the humanity and peaceable temper of theſe harmleſs villagers. I approached the hamlet, and, from the firſt perſon I met, which was an old woman, demanded ſome charity to ſave me from ſtarving. She entered into converſation with me, and the ſound of our voices inſtantly brought ſeveral other women out of the huts, who, perceiving how weak and emaciated I was, expreſſed great compaſſion for me, and each went and brought me ſome of her homely fare, conſiſting of boiled raggy and gram water made into a curry, which proved the moſt welcome and ſavoury repaſt I ever made. When I left theſe compaſſionate and benevolent creatures, they furniſhed me with a couple of raggy cakes, being all the prepared proviſions the hamlet could produce after I had ſatisfied my hunger. The following morning I was fortunate enough to fall in with a parcel of trees bearing a berry much reſembling our ſloes; knowing this fruit to be very wholeſome, I devoured as many as I was able to eat on the ſpot, and afterwards gathered as many more as I could carry away, being determined to reſerve the cakes which I had received from the hoſpitable Kennaries for a laſt reſource.

I continued to travel in a northerly direction, as much as poſſible amongſt the woods, until the eighth in the evening, when, coming to a plain which I muſt unavoidably paſs, I all at once perceived, to my unſpeakable terror, two tygers not above one hundred paces from me, coming right acroſs the plain: they ſeemed not to notice me until the inſtant they were oppoſite to me, when, to my great ſatisfaction, they turned away with their tails between their legs, and ſoon diſappeared. I am, from this adventure, led to give ſome credit to the

the reported puſillanimity of the tyger, who, it is ſaid, will ſeldom attack a perſon unleſs by ſurpriſe, or a ſudden leap, like that of a cat at a mouſe, which he will not reſume if he miſſes his aim.

About an hour after this rencounter, I fell in with a troop of polygars returning from hunting. They inſtantly took me priſoner, and carried me to a mud-fort, to the weſtward of the foreſt; it was not quite dark when we reached it, and I had juſt time to notice a large tank behind it, which immediately ſtruck me as the ſecureſt road to follow ſhould I be fortunate enough to give my new captors the ſlip. I was left in charge of one ſentry until the killadar's determination with reſpect to me could be obtained, and had the ſatisfaction to hear my ſentinel receive orders not to bind me before the commander had been conſulted. It was evident, that all hopes of eſcaping the impending danger, and of avoiding a ſecond viſit to Seringapatam, depended upon the exertions and ſucceſs of the moment. I therefore reſolved to make the attempt, and the moment the crowd (who followed the polygar to the killadar's houſe, on purpoſe to have the earlieſt intimation of my fate, with as much eagerneſs as if their whole welfare depended on knowing it) was diſperſed, I vehemently complained of thirſt, and implored the ſentry to bring me a draught of water. I was in reality very weak when taken up by theſe people, and, on their ſeizing me, I pretended to be much more ſo; this circumſtance, and my poor appearance, deceived the ſentry ſo eaſily, that he never dreamt, I ſuppoſe, of my attempting to walk off, and therefore, without any ſuſpicion of my deſign, he went for the water. The inſtant he was out of ſight, not loſing one ſecond in reflection, I wrapped myſelf carefully up in my blanket, and ſtrutted boldly out of the fort, paſſing all the three gates without any interruption or ſuſpicion, the paſſages being crowded with people and cattle returning from the fields. Finding I was not purſued, I turned again to the north, and travelled for ſeveral ſucceſſive nights over an open country, being obliged during the day to hide myſelf in caverns and holes.

Some days after, another party of polygars ſtopped and examined me. Not ſatisfied with the ſtory I told them, they carried me into the fort, which was at hand, and brought me before the killadar, where I underwent a ſecond examination. The killadar put many queſtions to me; but I had the good fortune to deceive him ſo far by an artful tale, that he not only ſet me at liberty, but gave me ſome victuals to ſupport me on my journey.

I found that I was much weaker at this period than I had imagined, being obliged at very ſhort intervals to have recourſe to reſt, and with all my endeavours was unable to travel above five or ſix miles in the courſe of four and twenty hours. Reſolved, however, to exert myſelf to the laſt, and ſtrain every nerve, I continued to ſaunter on, ſometimes among woods and broken rocks, and ſometimes over plains, until the 4th of January, when I found myſelf near a mud-fort, which I had not previouſly obſerved, and was ſuddenly ſurrounded by a number of Mahrattas, and carried before the Nalputty rajah, who was proprietor of this fort. The rajah was then engaged in making preparations for taking the field in the morning, and had therefore no time to attend to me, but directed that I ſhould be retained in the fort, and taken care of until he ſhould return.

During his abſence I gradually recovered part of my former health and vigour. On the 12th of February the rajah returned, and I was next day taken before him. Having learnt ſince my arrival that he was one of thoſe Mahratta rajahs whom Tippoo had diſpoſſeſſed in 1785 and 1786, but who had availed himſelf of the approach of our troops in 1790 to recover his ancient territory and right, and that he conſequently was no partiſan of the Myſore ſultan, I frankly anſwered his interrogatories by a plain confeſſion of the ſimple truth. He ſeemed much affected at my narrative, and invited me to enter into his ſervice. I concluded, that the ſureſt way of obtaining the liberty which I now panted after (finding myſelf ſufficiently ſtrong to face new fatigues) would be to feign aſſent to the rajah's requeſt. I therefore rea-

dily accepted his offer; in conſequence of which I was immediately releaſed, and deſired to demand whatever I wanted; I returned very ſubmiſſive thanks for the rajah's promiſes of preferment, and affected to be much ſatisfied with my ſituation. That night and next day I walked about at pleaſure, and had already inſpired the people of the fort with ſo much confidence, that nobody ſeemed to notice my departure, between the hours of nine and ten, on the 14th, at night.

I had diſcovered from the people in the fort, that Gopaul was the place I had diſtinguiſhed at my firſt approaching the river, conſequently I directed my courſe towards it, and approached it half an hour after dark, when ſome of the Nizam's people, after hearing my tale, picked me up, and ſent me on an elephant to Mouberjung's camp, where I was ſomewhat aſtoniſhed to find myſelf confined under a guard; but reflecting that I was in the hands of an ally, that Engliſh troops were preſent, and that any miſtake with reſpect to me would ſpeedily be cleared up, I lay down to ſleep pretty eaſy in mind. Next day, being the 16th, I was early in the morning taken before the bukſhy, who put a number of queſtions to me, all of which I anſwered by deſiring to be conveyed to the Engliſh commander. A guard immediately was ſent along with me to his encampment, but, being abſent on the batteries himſelf, I had to remain, whilſt his orders could be received, an object of curioſity to the troops, to whom I was repreſented as a Frenchman, ſent by Tippoo to reconnoitre the fort, and taken up by ſome of the Nizam's people in the attempt. Some hours had elapſed, and my ſituation began to grow irkſome, and the ſpectators troubleſome, though no violence was offered to me, when fortunately Lieutenant Engliſh, returning from duty on the batteries, beheld the crowd, and, having enquired into the cauſe of it, carried me from the Nizam's guard to Captain Dalrymple's marquee. I related my hiſtory, together with the particulars of my eſcape, to this gentleman, who congratulated me on my fortunate delivery, ordered me what refreſhments I wanted, and preſented me with ſome rupees; he likewiſe gave me a coat, a hat, and ſome linen. Thus I found myſelf once more, after ten years of cruel captivity, apparelled like an European, amongſt men of honour, and reſtored to liberty. On the 11th of June, 1791, I arrived at Fort William, after an abſence of ten years and eight months; three months and twenty-five days of which had been ſpent in the ſervice of my country, nine years, nine months, and twenty-two days, in ſlavery, partly as a priſoner of war, and partly as a captive retained in defiance of faith and the law of nations.

The above is a relation of what one obſcure individual ſuffered, whilſt in the power of a conqueror who degrades humanity.—A little before I left Seringapatam, I took particular notice of two merchants from the Nizam's dominions, who ſuffered with aſtoniſhing fortitude; they were daily, during the cutcherry hours, which are from eight in the morning until ſix in the evening, pinioned with their arms and legs to the ground, and whilſt in this poſture, lying on their backs, with their faces to the ſun, a fellow on each ſide kept continually pricking them with long and pointed needles. The whole property of ſuch as die under the rack, if diſcovered, is confiſcated. I cannot tell what became of theſe two men, but I have known many others that were really thought and known to poſſeſs money hold out till the laſt moment, without betraying their poſſeſſions.

I cannot conclude this narrative without expreſſing my acknowledgements to the gentlemen in Bengal, who generouſly exerted themſelves in my behalf on my firſt arrival, and, moved by my ſufferings, offered me their aid and ſupport. The kind recommendation of theſe gentlemen, as well as that of ſeveral others, induced Colonel Murray, the military auditor-general, to commiſerate my ſituation; and to his good offices and liberal interpoſition it is owing that I have recovered my full arrears of pay for the whole time of my impriſonment.

A drummer of Colonel Baillie's corps, who had been ſince that memorable fatal action a priſoner with Tippoo, has lately effected his eſcape from Seringapatam, and arrived in ſafety early laſt month

month at Cochin. By him we are informed, that upwards of thirty of our unfortunate countrymen are ſtill detained priſoners at Seringapatam; their releaſe, however, we may ſhortly hope to hear of, their names having been given in to General Abercrombie ſome time ſince.

HISTORY OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

[*Continued from page* 213.]

THE law has forbidden the uſe of ſilks and furs to children; and has even preſcribed the time when they are firſt to wear a cap. This is put upon their heads by the maſter of ceremonies himſelf, who addreſſes them in the following manner: "Conſider that you now receive the dreſs of thoſe who have attained to maturity, and that you ceaſe to be children; renounce therefore all childiſh thoughts and inclinations, aſſume a grave and ſerious deportment, apply with reſolution to the ſtudy of virtue and wiſdom, and endeavour to merit a long and happy life." "This ceremony (ſays M. Groſier,) which may appear trifling, is attended with the happieſt effects. The Chineſe give a kind of importance to every thing which can inſpire youth with a taſte for morality and a love of good order. It might be uſeful to mankind at every fixed epocha of their lives, to remind them of thoſe new duties impoſed by each ſucceſſive change: but, by uniting the ſolemnity of a public ceremony to this inſtruction, it will make a deeper impreſſion, and remain much longer imprinted on their memories."

Nothing can appear more irkſome to an European than the multitude of ceremonies uſed on all occaſions by the Chineſe. An invitation to an entertainment is not ſuppoſed to be given with ſincerity until it has been renewed three or four times in writing. A card is ſent on the evening before the entertainment, another on the morning of the appointed day, and a third when every thing is prepared and the gueſts ready to ſit down to the table. The maſter of the houſe always introduces his gueſts into the hall, where he ſalutes them one after another. He then orders wine to be brought him in a ſmall cup made of ſilver, porcelain, or precious wood, and placed upon a ſmall varniſhed ſalver. He lays hold of it with both his hands, makes a bow to all the ſurrounding gueſts, and advances towards the fore part of the hall, which generally looks into a large court. He there raiſes his eyes and the cup towards heaven; after which he pours the wine on the ground. He afterwards pours ſome wine into a ſilver or porcelain cup, makes a bow to the moſt conſiderable perſon in company, and then goes to place the cup on the table before him; for in China every gueſt has a table for himſelf. The perſon for whom he intends this honour, however, generally ſaves him the trouble of placing the cup; calls for wine in his turn, and offers to place the cup on the maſter's table, who endeavours to prevent him, with a thouſand apologies and compliments according to the rules of Chineſe politeneſs. A ſuperior domeſtic conducts the principal gueſt to an elbow-chair covered with rich flowered ſilk, where the ſtranger again begins his compliments, and begs to be excuſed from ſitting in ſuch an honourable ſeat, which nevertheleſs he accepts of; and all the reſt of the gueſts do the ſame, otherwiſe the ceremonial would be gone thro' with each of them. The entertainment is concluded with ſome theatrical repreſentations, accompanied with the muſic of the country; which, however, would give but little pleaſure to an European. Beſides the gueſts, a certain number of people are admitted into the court in order to behold theſe theatrical repreſentations; and even the women are allowed to view them through a wicket, contrived ſo that they may behold them without being ſeen themſelves.

The entertainments of the Chineſe are begun, not by eating, but by drinking; and the liquor they drink muſt always be pure wine. The intendant, or *maitre d'hotel*, falling down on one knee, firſt invites the gueſts to take a glaſs; on which each of them lays hold, with both hands, of that which is placed before him, raiſing it as high as his fore-

head, then bringing it lower down than the table, and at laſt putting it to his mouth: they all drink together, and very ſlowly, taking three or four draughts. While they are drinking, the diſhes on each of the tables are removed, and others brought in. Each of the gueſts has twenty-four ſet before him in ſucceſſion; all of them fat, and in the form of ragouts. They never uſe knives in their repaſts; and two ſmall pointed ſticks, ornamented with ivory or ſilver, ſerve them inſtead of forks. They never begin to eat, however, until they are invited by the *maitre d'hotel*; and the ſame ceremony muſt be gone through every time they are going to take a cup of wine, or begin to a new diſh. Towards the middle of the entertainment the ſoup is brought in, accompanied with ſmall loaves or meat-pies. Theſe they take up with their ſmall ſticks, ſteep them in the ſoup, and eat them without waiting for any ſignal, or being obliged to keep time with the reſt of the gueſts. The entertainment, however, continues in other reſpects with the utmoſt formality until tea is brought in; after which they retire from table and amuſe themſelves in another hall, or in the garden, for a ſhort time, until the deſert be brought in. This, like the entertainment itſelf, conſiſts of twenty-four diſhes, which are made up of ſweetmeats, fruits differently prepared, hams and ſalted ducks which have been baked or dried in the ſun, with ſhell and other kinds of fiſh. The ſame ceremonies which preceded the repaſt are now renewed, and every one ſits down at the ſame place he occupied before. Larger cups are then brought in, and the maſter invites the gueſts to drink more freely.

Theſe entertainments begin towards evening, and never end till midnight. A ſmall ſum of money is given to the domeſtics; when every one of the gueſts goes home in a chair preceded by ſeveral ſervants, who carry large lanthorns of oiled paper, on which are inſcribed the quality, and ſometimes the name, of the maſter. Without ſuch an attendance they would be taken up by the guard; and the day following they never fail to return a card of thanks to the officer.

Their method of drinking tea is not like that of other nations. A ſmall quantity of bohea, ſufficient to tinge the water and render it palatable (for they drink no green), is taken in the morning, and thrown into a veſſel adapted to the number in family. This ſtands till milk-warm; in which ſtate it is kept the whole day, and a cup drunk now and then without ſugar or milk, in order to exhilarate the ſpirits when exhauſted by fatigue; and if a ſtranger calls by accident, or a viſitor by appointment, the firſt thing preſented, after the uſual ceremonies of meeting, is a very ſmall pipe filled with tobacco of their own growth, and a cup of the tea already mentioned, or of ſome freſh-made of better quality, together with ſweetmeats, &c. Tea is the daily beverage in China, and is drunk by all ranks of people.

Some change has been made in the ceremonial of the Chineſe by the Tartar conqueſt, and ſome new diſhes alſo introduced by the ſame means; and here M. Groſier obſerves, that the Tartars are much better cooks than the Chineſe. All their diſhes are highly ſeaſoned; and by a variation in the proportions of their ſpiceries they are able to form a variety of diſhes out of the ſame materials. None of their viands, however, are more eſteemed than ſtags' ſinews, and the neſts of a particular ſpecies of birds, which have the property of giving a moſt agreeable reliſh to whatever is mixed with them. Other diſhes are introduced at theſe repaſts, which would be accounted very diſagreeable with us; ſuch as the fleſh of wild horſes, the paws of a bear, and the feet of ſeveral wild animals. The greater part of theſe proviſions are brought preſerved in ſalt from Siam, Camboya, and Tartary.

The wines of China have no reſemblance to ours either in taſte or quality, being procured from rice, and not from the vine. A particular kind of rice is employed for making them, and the grain is ſteeped for twenty or thirty days in water, into which ingredients of a different nature are ſucceſſively thrown: they afterwards boil it; and, as ſoon as it becomes diſſolved by the heat, it immediately ferments, and throws up a vaporous ſcum not unlike new wine. A very pure liquor is found under this ſcum,

ſcum, which is drawn off and put into veſſels well glazed. From the remaining lyes, an inflammable ſpirit is made, little inferior, and ſometimes even ſuperior, to the European. Another kind of wine is uſed by the Chineſe, or rather Tartars, called lamb-wine. It is very ſtrong, and has a diſagreeable ſmell, and the ſame may be believed of a kind of ſpirit diſtilled from the fleſh of ſheep; though this laſt is ſometimes uſed by the emperors.

Theſe entertainments exceed the bounds of ordinary repaſts; the Chineſe being naturally ſober, and thoſe in eaſy circumſtances living chiefly on pork, for which reaſon a great number of hogs are bred in the country, whoſe fleſh is much eaſier of digeſtion, and more agreeable to the taſte, than thoſe of Europe. The Chineſe hams are in high eſtimation. The common people live very poorly; being ſatisfied, in time of ſcarcity, with the fleſh of dogs, horſes, cats, and rats, which laſt are ſold publicly in the ſtreets.

There are ſeveral public feſtivals annually celebrated in China. One is that already mentioned, in which the emperor tills the ground with his own hands. This is alſo celebrated on the ſame day throughout the empire. In the morning the governor of every city comes forth from his palace crowned with flowers, and enters his chair amidſt the noiſe of different inſtruments which prede it; a great number of people attending, as is uſual on all ſuch occaſions. The chair is ſurrounded by litters covered with ſilk carpets, on which are repreſented either ſome illuſtrious perſons who have ſupported and encouraged agriculture or ſome hiſtorical painting on the ſame ſubject. The ſtreets are hung with carpets, triumphal arches are erected at certain diſtances, lanthorns every where diſplayed, and all the houſes illuminated. During the ceremony, a figure reſembling a cow, made of baked earth, with gilt horns, is carried in proceſſion, and of ſuch enormous magnitude that forty men are ſcarcely ſufficient to ſupport it. A child follows with one foot naked and the other ſhod, who is called the ſpirit of labour and diligence, and keeps continually beating the image with a rod to make it advance. Labourers, with their implements of huſbandry, march behind; and the proceſſion is cloſed by a number of comedians and people in maſks. The governor advances towards the eaſtern gate, and returns in the ſame manner. The cow is then ſtripped of its ornaments, a prodigious number of earthen calves taken from its belly and diſtributed among the people; after which the large figure is broken in pieces and diſtributed in the ſame manner. The ceremony is ended by an oration in praiſe of agriculture, in which the governor endeavours to excite his hearers to the practice of that uſeful art.

Two other feſtivals are celebrated in China with ſtill more magnificence than that above deſcribed. One of them is at the commencement of the year; the other is called the feaſt of lanthorns. During the celebration of the former, all buſineſs, whether private or public, is ſuſpended, the tribunals are ſhut, the poſts ſtopped, preſents are given and received, and viſits paid. All the family aſſemble in the evening, and partake of a feaſt to which no ſtranger is admitted; though they become a little more ſociable on the following day.

The feaſt of lanthorns ought to take place on the 15th day of the firſt month, but uſually commences on the evening of the 13th, and does not end till that of the 16th. At that time every city and village, the ſhores of the ſea, and the banks of all the rivers, are hung with lanthorns of various ſhapes and ſizes; ſome of them being ſeen in the courts and windows of the pooreſt houſes. No expence is ſpared on this occaſion; and ſome of the rich people will lay out eight or nine pounds ſterling on one lanthorn. Some of theſe are very large, compoſed of ſix wooden frames, either neatly painted or gilt, and filled up with pieces of fine tranſparent ſilk, upon which are painted flowers, animals, and human figures; others are blue, and made of a tranſparent kind of horn. Several lamps, and a great number of wax candles, are placed in the inſide: to the corners of each are fixed ſtreamers of ſilk and ſatin of different colours, with a curious piece of carved work on the top. They are likewiſe acquainted with our magic lanthorn, which they ſometimes introduce

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in this feſtival. Beſides this, they have the art of forming a ſnake 60 or 80 feet in length, filled with lights from one end to the other; which they cauſe to twiſt itſelf into different forms, and move about as if it were a real ſerpent. During the ſame feſtival all the varieties of the Chineſe fire-works, ſo juſtly admired, and which, ſome time ago at leaſt, ſurpaſſed every thing of the kind that could be done in Europe, are exhibited.

Every public ceremony in China is carefully rendered as ſtriking as poſſible. A viceroy never quits his palace but with a royal train, dreſſed in his robes of ceremony, and carried in a chair elegantly gilt, which is borne upon the ſhoulders of eight domeſtics; two drummers marching before the guards, and beating upon copper baſons to give notice of his approach. Eight other attendants carry ſtandards of wood, varniſhed, upon which are inſcribed in large characters all his titles of honour. After theſe come fourteen flags with the ſymbols of his office; ſuch as the dragon, tyger, phœnix, flying tortoiſe, &c. Six officers follow, each bearing a piece of board, in ſhape like a large ſhovel, on which are written in large golden characters the qualities of the mandarin himſelf: two others carry, the one a large umbrella of yellow ſilk, and the other the cover in which the umbrella is kept. The firſt guards are preceded by two archers on horſeback; the latter are followed by others armed with a kind of weapons compoſed of hooked blades, fixed perpendicularly to long poles ornamented with four tufts of ſilk, placed at a ſmall diſtance above one another. Behind theſe are two other files of ſoldiers, ſome of whom carry large maces with long handles; others iron maces in the ſhape of a ſnake; others are armed with huge hammers; while thoſe behind them carry long battle axes in the form of a creſcent; others follow, who have battle axes of another kind; and behind theſe are ſome with the hooked weapons already deſcribed.

Behind theſe come ſoldiers armed with triple-pointed ſpears, arrows, or battle axes; having in front two men who carry a kind of box containing the viceroy's ſeal. Then come two other drummers to give notice of his approach. Two officers follow, having on their heads felt hats, adorned with plumes of feathers, and each armed with a cane to recommend regularity and good order to the ſurrounding multitude. Two others bear maces in the form of gilt dragons. Theſe again are followed by a number of magiſtrates and officers of juſtice; ſome of whom carry whips or flat ſticks, while others have chains, hangers, and ſilk ſcarfs. Two ſtandard-bearers and a captain command this company, which immediately precedes the governor. His chair is ſurrounded by pages and footmen, and an officer attends him who carries a large fan in form of a ſcreen; he is followed by ſeveral guards differently armed, together with enſigns and other officers, who are alſo followed by a great number of domeſtics all on horſeback carrying various neceſſaries for the uſe of the mandarin. If he marches in the night-time, inſtead of flambeaux, as are cuſtomary in Europe, large lanthorns, exceedingly pretty, are carried before him; on the tranſparent part of which are written, in very conſpicuous characters, his quality, titles, and rank, as a mandarin. Theſe are alſo intended to give notice to the paſſengers to ſtop, and to thoſe who are ſitting to riſe up with reſpect; for whoever neglects either the one or the other is ſure to receive a ſevere baſtinading.

The emperor marches with ſtill more magnificence, in proportion to his ſuperior quality. The trumpets uſed in his proceſſion are about three feet long, eight inches in diameter at the lower extremity, and pretty much reſembling a bell in ſhape: their ſound is peculiarly adapted to that of the drums. His cavalcade is cloſed by two thouſand mandarins of letters, and as many of arms. Sometimes the great mandarins, as well as the emperor, travel in barks. Their attendance is then ſomewhat different, but the magnificence almoſt the ſame. The honours paid to a viceroy who has governed a province with equity are exceedingly great on his departure from it. He has ſcarcely left the capital of the province, when he finds on the highway, for the ſpace of two or three leagues, tables ranged at certain diſtances, each of which is ſurrounded with a long piece of ſilk that hangs

hangs down to the earth. On theſe wax candles are placed even in the open day; perfumes are burnt upon them; and they are loaded with a profuſion of victuals and various kinds of fruit, while tea and wine are prepared for him on others. The people throw themſelves on their knees as he paſſes, and bow their heads even to the earth; ſome ſhed tears, or pretend to do ſo; ſome preſent him wine and ſweetmeats; others frequently pull off his boots and give him new ones. Theſe boots, which he has perhaps uſed only for a moment, are conſidered as a valuable monument: thoſe firſt taken off are preſerved in a cage over the gate of the city; the reſt are carefully kept by his friends.

(*To be continued.*)

INSTABILITY OF HUMAN GRANDEUR.

THE RICHES OF CRŒSUS.

CROESUS was the laſt king of Lydia, remarkable for his riches, his conqueſts, his temporary proſperity, and the ſad reverſe of his fortune. He ſubdued the Phrygians, Myſians, Paphlagenians, Thracians, and Carians; amaſſed together immenſe riches; and became one of the moſt powerful and magnificent princes in the world. He drew the learned to his court, and took a pleaſure in converſing with them. Thales of Miletus, Pittacus of Mitylene, Bias of Priené, Cleobulus of Lindus, and moſt of the other "wiſe men," as they are emphatically ſtiled, who lived in that age, as well as Æſop the fabuliſt, and the elegant Greek poets of the times, were bountifully received at the court of Crœſus. There is ſtill on record a memorable converſation between that prince and Solon, which ſeemed to predict the ſubſequent events of his reign, and which had a late but important influence on the character and fortune of the Lydian king. Crœſus having entertained his Athenian gueſt, according to the ancient faſhion, for ſeveral days, before he aſked him any queſtions, oſtentatiouſly ſhewed him the magnificence of his palace, and particularly the riches of his treaſury. After all had been diſplayed to the beſt advantage, the king complimented Solon upon his curioſity and love of knowledge; and aſked him, as a man who had ſeen many countries, and reflected with much judgment upon what he had ſeen, Whom of all men he eſteemed moſt happy? By the particular occaſion, as well as the triumphant air with which the queſtion was propoſed, the king made it evident that he expected flattery rather than information. But Solon's character had not been enervated by the debilitating air of a court; and he replied with a manly freedom, "Tellus, the Athenian." Crœſus, who had ſcarcely learned to diſtinguiſh, even in imagination, between wealth and happineſs, inquired with a tone of ſurpriſe, why this preference to Tellus? "Tellus," rejoined Solon, "was not conſpicuous for his riches or his grandeur, being only a ſimple citizen of Athens; but he was deſcended from parents who deſerved the firſt honours of the republic. He was equally fortunate in his children, who obtained univerſal eſteem by their probity, patriotiſm, and every uſeful quality of the mind or body; and, as to himſelf, he died fighting gallantly in the ſervice of his country, which his valour rendered victorious in a doubtful combat; on which account the Athenians buried him on the ſpot where he fell, and diſtinguiſhed him by every honour which public gratitude can confer on illuſtrious merit."

Crœſus had little encouragement, after this anſwer, to aſk Solon, in the ſecond place, Whom, next to Tellus, he deemed moſt happy? Such, however, is the illuſion of vanity, that he ſtill ventured to make this demand; and ſtill, as we are informed by the moſt circumſtantial of hiſtorians, entertained hopes of being favourably anſwered. But Solon replied with the ſame freedom as before, "The brothers Cleobis and Biton; two youths of Argos, whoſe ſtrength and addreſs were crowned with repeated victory at the Olympic games; who deſerved the affection of their parents, the gratitude of their country, the admiration of Greece; and who, having endeared their lives

with

with peculiar felicity, were commemorated by the moſt ſignal monuments of immortal fame." "And is the happineſs of a king, then," ſaid Crœſus, "ſo little regarded, O Grecian ſtranger! that you prefer to it the mean condition of an Athenian or Argive citizen? The reply of Solon ſufficiently juſtified his reputation for wiſdom: "The life of man," ſaid he, "conſiſts of 70 years, which make 25,550 days; an immenſe number: yet, in the longeſt life, the events of any one day will not be found exactly alike to thoſe of another. The affairs of men are liable to perpetual viciſſitudes: the Divinity who preſides over our fate is envious of too much proſperity; and all human life, if not condemned to calamity, is at leaſt liable to accident. Whoever has uninterruptedly enjoyed a proſperous tide of ſucceſs may be juſtly called fortunate: but he cannot before his death be intitled to the epithet of happy."

The events which ſoon followed this converſation prove how little ſatisfaction is derived from the poſſeſſion of a throne. Victorious in war, unrivalled in wealth, ſupreme in power, Crœſus felt and acknowledged his unhappineſs. The warmeſt affections of his ſoul centered in his ſon Atys, a youth of the moſt promiſing hopes, who had often fought and conquered by his ſide. The ſtrength of his attachment was accompanied with an exceſs of paternal care, and the anxiety of his waking hours diſturbed the tranquillity of his reſt. He dreamed that his beloved ſon was ſlain by a dart; and the ſolicitude with which he watched his ſafety, preventing the youth from his uſual occupations and amuſement, and thereby rendering him too eager to enjoy them, moſt probably expoſed him to the much-dreaded misfortune. Reluctantly permitted to engage in a party of hunting, the juvenile ardour of Atys, increaſed by the impatience of long reſtraint, made him neglect the precautions neceſſary in that manly amuſement. He was ſlain by a dart aimed at a wild boar of monſtrous ſize, which had long ſpread terror over the country of the Myſians. The weapon came from the hand of Adraſtus, a Phrygian prince and fugitive, whom Crœſus had purified from the involuntary guilt of a brother's blood, and long diſtinguiſhed by peculiar marks of bounty. To the grateful protection of the Phrygian, Crœſus recommended, at parting, the ſafety of his beloved ſon. A mournful proceſſion of Lydians brought to Sardis the dead body of Atys. The ill-fated murderer followed behind. When they approached the royal preſence, Adraſtus ſtepped forward, and intreated Crœſus to put him to death; thinking life no longer to be endured after killing, firſt his own brother, and then the ſon of his benefactor. But the Lydian king, notwithſtanding the exceſs of his affliction, acknowledged the innocence of Adraſtus, and the power of fate: "Stranger, your action is blameleſs, being committed without deſign. I know that my ſon was deſtined to a premature death." Adraſtus, though pardoned by Crœſus, could not pardon himſelf. When the mourners were removed, he privately returned, and periſhed by his own hand on the tomb of Atys.

Two years Crœſus remained diſconſolate for the loſs of his ſon; and might have continued to indulge his unavailing affliction during the remainder of life, had not the growing greatneſs of Perſia, which threatened the ſafety of his dominions, rouſed him from his dream of miſery. He marched againſt Cyrus with a great army, but was defeated; and, retreating to his capital Sardis, was there beſieged. The city was taken by aſſault; and, as a Perſian ſoldier was going to kill Crœſus, that prince's only ſurviving ſon, who had hitherto been dumb, terrified at his danger, cried, Stop, ſoldier, and touch not Crœſus. But, though delivered by this extraordinary accident from the blind rage of the ſoldier, he ſeemed to be reſerved for a harder fate. Dragged into the preſence of his conqueror, he was loaded with irons; and the ſtern unrelenting Cyrus, of whoſe humane temper of mind we have ſo beautiful, but ſo flattering, a picture, in the philoſophical romance of Xenophon, ordered him, with the melancholy train of his Lydian attendants, to be committed to the flames. An immenſe pile of wood and combuſtibles was erected in the moſt ſpacious part of the city. The miſerable victims, bound hand and foot, were placed on the top

of the pyre. Cyrus, ſurrounded by his generals, witneſſed the dreadful ſpectacle, either from an abominable principle of ſuperſtition, as if he had bound himſelf by a vow to ſacrifice Crœſus as the firſt-fruits of his Lydian victory, or from a motive of curioſity, equally cruel and impious, to try whether Crœſus, who had ſo magnificently adorned the temples and enriched the miniſters of the gods, would be helped in time of need by the miraculous interpoſition of his much-honoured protectors. Meanwhile the unfortunate Lydian, oppreſſed and confounded by the intolerable weight of his preſent calamity compared with the ſecurity and ſplendour of his former ſtate, recollected his memorable converſation with the Athenian ſage, and uttered with a deep groan the name of Solon. Cyrus aſked by an interpreter, "Whoſe name he invoked?" "His," replied Crœſus, emboldened by the proſpect of certain death, "whoſe words ought ever to ſpeak to the hearts of kings." This reply not being ſatisfactory, he was commanded to explain at full length the ſubject of his thoughts. Accordingly he related the important diſcourſe which had paſſed between himſelf and the Athenian, of which it was the great moral, That no man could be called happy till his death.

The words of a dying man are fitted to make a ſtrong impreſſion on the heart. Thoſe of Crœſus deeply affected the mind of Cyrus. The Perſian conſidered the ſpeech of Solon as addreſſed to himſelf. He repented of his intended cruelty towards an unfortunate prince, who had formerly enjoyed all the pomp of proſperity; and, dreading the concealed vengeance that might lurk in the boſom of fate, gave orders that the pyre ſhould be extinguiſhed. But the workmen, who had been employed to prepare it, had performed their taſk with ſo much care, that the order could not ſpeedily be obeyed. At that moment, Crœſus calling on Apollo, whoſe favourite ſhrine of Delphi had experienced his generous munificence, and whoſe perfidious oracle had made him ſo ungrateful a return, the god, it is ſaid, ſent a plentiful ſhower to extinguiſh the pyre. This event, which ſaved the life, and which ſufficiently atteſted the piety, of Crœſus, ſtrongly recommended him to the credulity of his conqueror. It ſeemed impoſſible to pay too much reſpect to a man who was evidently the favourite of heaven. Cyrus gave orders that he ſhould be ſeated by his ſide, and thenceforth treated as a king; a revolution of fortune equally ſudden and unexpected. But the mind of Crœſus had undergone a ſtill more important revolution: for, tutored in the uſeful ſchool of adverſity, he learned to think with patience and to act with prudence, to govern his own paſſions by the dictates of reaſon, and to repay by wholeſome advice the generous behaviour of his Perſian maſter.

Of FASHIONABLE COMPANY.

THE love of company and of ſocial pleaſures is natural, and attended with ſome of the ſweeteſt ſatisfactions of human life; but, like every other love, when it proceeds beyond the limits of moderation, it ceaſes to produce its natural effect, and terminates in diſguſtful ſatiety. The foundation-ſtone and the pillar on which we build the fabric of our felicity, muſt be laid in our own hearts. Amuſement, mirth, agreeable variety, and even improvement, may be ſometimes ſought in the gaiety of mixed company, and in the uſual diverſions of the world; but, if we found our general happineſs on theſe, we ſhall do little more than raiſe caſtles in the air, or build houſes on the ſand.

As the human mind cannot always be on the ſtretch, nor the hands always employed in labour, recreation becomes both agreeable and neceſſary. Of all recreation, that of the company of a few choſen companions muſt be allowed to be the moſt manly and moſt improving: but, as in thoſe hours of recreation we are moſt in danger of being miſled, being generally at ſuch ſeaſons more off our guard than uſual, the greateſt care ſhould be taken in making choice of whom to aſſociate with; for,

according to our choice of them, both our character and diſpoſition will receive a tincture, as waters paſſing thro' minerals partake of their taſte and efficacy. This is a truth ſo univerſally received, that it is become a proverb both in the natural and moral world, That a man is known by his company. As by chemiſtry we learn, that diſcordant mixtures produce nothing but broil and fermentation till one of them gets the aſcendancy of the reſt; ſo from ſcripture we learn, that two cannot walk together except they be agreed. From which we may ſee, how impoſſible it is for any one to be thought a perſon of real goodneſs and integrity, whilſt he chooſeth for his companions the abandoned and licentious.

By herding with ſuch, he will not only loſe his character, but his virtue; for, whatever fallacious diſtinction he may be pleaſed to make between the men and their vices, in the end the firſt generally qualifies the laſt; and by ceaſing to hate them he will ſoon learn both to love and practiſe them. In ſhort, the ſociety of ſenſual men is peculiarly enſnaring. The malignity of their contagion doth not appear all at once. Their frolics at firſt appear harmleſs; then, when partaken of, they leave a longing reliſh behind them; and one appointment makes way for another, one expence leads on to a ſecond; and ſo time and fortune are waſted away to very bad purpoſe.

To derive the proper pleaſure and improvement from company, it ought to be ſelect, and to conſiſt of perſons of character, reſpectable both for their morals and their underſtandings. Mixed and undiſtinguiſhed ſociety tends only to diſſipate our ideas and induce a laxity of principle and practice. The pleaſure it affords is of a coarſe, mixed, noiſy, and rude, kind. Indeed, it commonly ends in wearineſs and diſguſt, as even they are ready to confeſs who yet conſtantly purſue it, as if their chief good conſiſted in living in a crowd.

Among thoſe, indeed, who are exempted by their circumſtances from profeſſional and official employments, and who profeſſedly devote themſelves to a life of pleaſure, little elſe ſeems to conſtitute the idea of it but an unceaſing ſucceſſion of company, public or private. The dreſs, and other circumſtances preparatory to the enjoyment of this pleaſure, ſcarcely leave a moment for reflection. Day after day is ſpent in the ſame toilſome round, till a habit is formed, which renders diſſipation neceſſary to exiſtence. One week without it would probably induce a lowneſs of ſpirits, which might terminate in deſpair and ſuicide. When the mind has no anchor, it will ſuffer a kind of ſhipwreck; it will ſink in whirlpools, and be daſhed on rocks. What, indeed, is life or its enjoyments, without ſettled principles, laudable purpoſes, mental exertions, and internal comfort? It is merely a vapour, or, to drop the language of figure on ſo ſerious a ſubject, it is a ſtate worſe than nonentity, ſince it poſſeſſes a reſtleſs power of action, productive of nothing but miſery.

It is recommended, therefore, to all who wiſh to enjoy their exiſtence, that they ſhould acquire a power not only of bearing, but of taking a pleaſure in, temporary ſolitude. Every one muſt, indeed, ſometimes be alone. Let him not repine when he is alone, but learn to ſet a value on the golden moments. It is then that he is enabled to ſtudy himſelf and the world around him. It is then that he has an opportunity of ſeeing things as they are, and of removing the deceitful veil which almoſt every thing aſſumes in the buſy ſcene of worldly employments. The ſoul is enabled to retire into herſelf, and to exert thoſe energies which are always attended with ſublime pleaſure. She is enabled to ſee the dependent, frail, and wretched, ſtate of man as the child of nature; and, incited by her diſcovery, to implore grace and protection from the ſupreme Governor of the univerſe.

There is no doubt but man is made for action, and that his duties and pleaſures are often moſt numerous and moſt important amidſt the buſy hum of men. Many vices, and many corrupt diſpoſitions, have been foſtered in a ſolitary life. Monkery is not favourable to human nature or human happineſs; neither is unlimited diſſipation.

In ſhort, let there be a ſweet interchange of retirement and aſſociation, of repoſe and activity. A few hours

ſpent

ſpent every day by the votaries of pleaſure in ſerious meditation, would render their pleaſure pure, and more unmixed with miſery. It would give them knowledge, ſo that they would ſee how far they might advance in their purſuit without danger; and reſolution, ſo that they might retreat when danger approached. It would teach them how to live, a knowledge which indeed they think they poſſeſs already; and it would alſo teach them, what they are often too little ſolicitous to learn,—HOW TO DIE.

P O L A N D.

POLAND, before the late iniquitous diſmemberment, was a large kingdom, almoſt ſquare, about ſeven hundred miles long and ſix hundred and eighty broad; between 16 and 34 degrees eaſt longitude, and between 46 and 57 degrees north latitude. Before the commencement of the laſt German war, the kingdom of Poland, with the duchy of Lithuania annexed, was bounded on the north by Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic ſea; on the eaſt by Muſcovy; on the ſouth by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; on the weſt by Germany: and, had the form of its government been as perfect as its ſituation was compact, it might have been one of the moſt powerful kingdoms in the univerſe. That it may not be forgotten that there was once ſuch a kingdom as Poland, we ſhall here give its grand diviſions, as they ſubſiſted at the period we have mentioned above. The diſmemberment of this kingdom, and the partition of its faireſt provinces between Ruſſia and Pruſſia, may be the ſubject of a future paper.

PAPISTS.	*Sq. Miles.*	*Chief Cities.*
Lithuania	64,800	Wilna
Podolia	29,000	Caminiack
Volhinia	25,000	Lucknow
Red Ruſſia	25,200	Lemberg
Great Poland	19,200	Gueſna
Little Poland	18,000	Cracow
Poleſia	14,000	Breſſici
Moſovia	8,400	Warſaw
Samogitia	8,000	Raſiem
Pruſſia Royal	6,400	Elbing
Polachia	4,000	Bielk
PROTESTANTS.		
Courland, ſubject to Ruſſia	4,414	Mittau
Total	226,414	

The air of Poland is ſuch as may be expected from ſo extenſive but level a climate. In the north parts it is cold, but healthy; the Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlaſting ſnow, which has been known to fall in the midſt of ſummer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being ſo unſettled, either in winter or ſummer, as might be ſuppoſed from ſo northerly a climate. It is in general a level country; and the ſoil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vaſt quantities ſent thence down the Viſtula to Dantzic, and bought up by the Dutch and other nations. The paſtures of Poland are rich beyond expreſſion. Here are mines of ſilver, copper, iron, ſalt, and coals. The interior parts contain foreſts which furniſh timber in ſuch quantities, that it is employed in houſe-building, inſtead of bricks, ſtones, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits, and herbs, are produced in Poland, and ſome grapes. Poland alſo produces various kinds of clays fit for pipes and earthenware. The water of many of its ſprings is boiled into ſalt. The virtues of a ſpring in the palatinate of Cracow, which increaſes and decreaſes with the moon, are ſaid to be wonderful for the preſervation of life; and it is reported that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to one hundred and ſome of them to one hundred and fifty years of age: this ſpring is inflammable, and, by applying a torch to it, it flames like the ſubtleſt ſpirit of wine: the flame however dances on the ſurface without heating the water; but, if neglected to be extinguiſhed, which it may eaſily be, it communicates itſelf, by ſubterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees in a neighbouring wood, which it conſumes; and, about forty years ago, the flames are ſaid to have laſted three

years before they could be entirely extinguiſhed.

The chief rivers in Poland are the Viſtula or Weichſel, the Neiſter, the Neiper or Boriſthenes, the Bog, the Dwina, the Worta, the Weiman, and the Duman. The chief of the few lakes in Poland is Gopto or the White Lake, in the palatinate of Byzeſty and Birals, and is ſaid to dye thoſe who waſh in it of a ſwarthy complexion.

Some linen and woollen cloths and hardwares are manufactured in the interior parts of the kingdom. There are ſome productions peculiar to Poland,—particularly a kind of manna, which in May and June the inhabitants ſweep into ſieves with the dew, and it ſerves for food dreſſed various ways. The foreſts contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whoſe fleſh the Poles powder, and eſteem it an excellent diſh. Horſes, wolves, boars, elks, and deer, are alſo common in the foreſts; and there is a ſpecies of wild horſes and aſſes; a kind of wolf, reſembling a hart, with ſpots on his belly and legs, is found there, and affords the beſt furs in the country. But the elk, which is common in Poland, as well as in ſome other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal: the fleſh of the Poliſh elk forms the moſt delicious part of their greateſt feaſts. Naturaliſts have obſerved, that, upon diſſecting elks, there were frequently found in the head large flies, and that the brains were almoſt eaten away; and it is an obſervation ſufficiently atteſted, that, in the large woods and wilderneſſes of the north, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a ſort of flies, which get through its ears and take up their winter-quarters in its head. This is thought to be the occaſion of the elk's being affected with the falling-ſickneſs, by which means it is taken, which otherwiſe would be no eaſy matter.

From what has been ſaid of the extent of Poland, it is not eaſy to form an eſtimate of the number of its inhabitants. Some have ſuppoſed Poland and Lithuania to contain 15,000,000 of inhabitants, and to be at leaſt as populous as France.

The Poles in their perſons make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their ſhape well proportioned. They are brave, honeſt, and hoſpitable; and their women ſprightly, yet modeſt, and ſubmiſſive to their huſbands. The nobility of Poland had power of life and death over their tenants and vaſſals; but whether theſe miſerable ſubjects will be in a better ſituation under their new maſters may be the ſubject of a future enquiry.

The Poliſh tongue, which is a dialect of the Sclavonic, is not copious; and at the ſame time it is harſh and hard, ſome of the words having ſix or ſeven conſonants following one another. Its univerſities are thoſe of Cracow, Poſnia, and Wilna.

The preſent King of Poland, if we may ſtill call him by that name, had a very narrow eſcape from aſſaſſination on the night of the 4th of November, 1771, as he was returning to his palace from the houſe of Prince Czartorinſki, his grand chancellor. Not being eſcorted as uſual by his guards, he was attacked by one Koczinſki at the head of ſix confederates. After they had wounded the king's attendants, and himſelf in the head in two places, Koczinſki dragged the king into the wood of Marimont, to make an end of him there, having taken an oath to deliver him dead or alive to the confederates; but, hearing the noiſe of horſemen, who indeed were people in queſt of his majeſty, the villain appeared perplexed and terrified at the danger he was in; he ſeemed to ſtagger in his reſolution, and delayed to give the fatal blow. The king obſerved his agitation, and availed himſelf of it to turn him entirely from his horrid purpoſe. Koczinſki ſaid to him, "I know that to kill the king is a great ſin; but I have taken an oath to kill you." His majeſty anſwered, "I ſee that thou art not yet grown grey in thine iniquity: if thou knoweſt that it is a great ſin to kill the king, how didſt thou dare to take an oath to commit ſin?" Koczinſki replied, "But I have taken that oath; and beſides, if I do not kill you, I ſhall loſe my head." Upon which the king anſwered. "If thou believeſt me to be a king, thou oughteſt to believe that I have power to ſpare thy life." At laſt this man, giving way to remorſe of conſcience, confeſſed that he ſhuddered at the thoughts of killing his ſovereign,

and

and knew not what to do. His majeſty propoſed to him to go to Warſaw with him; but the other ſtill ſtrongly expreſſed his fears: "For (ſaid he) it is common to promiſe many things in a caſe of neceſſity which cannot afterwards be granted." The king then ſaid, that, if he would not truſt to his word, he might leave him alone, and make his eſcape. Koczinſki, convinced at length of his majeſty's ſincerity, declared that he would go with the king to Warſaw. They retreated for the preſent to a miller's cottage, whence the king diſpatched a billet to General Count Cocceji, which was conceived in the following terms:

"I am delivered from the hands of aſſaſſins by an immediate act of Providence. Haſten to me with forty ſoldiers. I am wounded, but not dangerouſly.

STANISLAUS AUGUSTUS."

When Prince Czartorinſki arrived at the cottage to which the king had retreated, with thirty attendants, he found his majeſty aſleep upon a very homely bed, and his intended aſſaſſin metamorphoſed into a faithful centinel to guard him. He was ſuffered to ſleep till General Cocceji arrived with a coach and two hundred men: he then awoke, entered the coach, and placed Koczinſki at the ſide of him. His majeſty entered Warſaw, at three in the morning, amidſt the acclamations of the people.

Happy had it been for this unfortunate monarch, had he even periſhed by the hand of an aſſaſſin, rather than to have lived to ſee his extenſive and populous kingdom diſmembered of its faireſt provinces; his own power reduced to a mere ſhadow; and his faithful ſubjects forced to take an oath of allegiance to a foreign power. He is now (1793) in the 62d year of his age.

ON GRATITUDE.

IT is impoſſible to particulariſe the ſeveral expreſſions of gratitude, which vary with the character and ſituation of the benefactor, and with the opportunities of the perſon obliged; for this variety admits of no bounds. It may be obſerved, however, that on one part gratitude can never oblige a man to do what is wrong, and what by conſequence he is previouſly obliged not to do: on the other part, it argues a total want of every generous principle, as well as of moral probity, to take advantage of that aſcendancy, which the conferring of benefits juſtly creates, to draw or drive thoſe whom we have obliged into mean or diſhoneſt compliances.

The following is a pleaſing example of genuine gratitude.—Francis Freſcobald, a Florentine merchant, deſcended of a noble family in Italy, had gained a plentiful fortune, of which he was liberal-handed to all in neceſſity; which being well known to others, though concealed by himſelf, a young ſtranger applied to him for charity. Signior Freſcobald, ſeeing ſomething in his countenance more than ordinary, overlooked his tattered clothes; and, compaſſionating his circumſtances, aſked him "What he was, and of what country?" "I am (anſwered the young man) a native of England; my name is Thomas Cromwell, and my father-in-law is a poor ſheer-man. I left my country to ſeek my fortune; came with the French army that were routed at Gatylion, where I was page to a footman, and carried his pike and burgonet after him." Freſcobald commiſerating his neceſſities, and having a particular reſpect for the Engliſh nation, clothed him genteelly; took him into his houſe till he had recovered ſtrength by better diet; and, at his taking leave, mounted him upon a good horſe, with ſixteen ducats of gold in his pockets. Cromwell expreſſed his thankfulneſs in a very ſenſible manner, and returned by land towards England; where, being arrived, he was preferred into the ſervice of Cardinal Wolſey. After the cardinal's death, he worked himſelf ſo effectually into the favour of King Henry VIII. that his majeſty made him a baron, viſcount, Earl of Eſſex, and at laſt made him lord high chancellor of England. In the mean time, Signior Freſcobald, by repeated loſſes at ſea and land, was reduced to poverty; and calling to mind (without ever thinking of Cromwell),

Cromwell), that ſome Engliſh merchants were indebted to him in the ſum of 15,000 ducats, he came to London to procure payment. Travelling in purſuit of this affair, he fortunately met with the lord-chancellor as he was riding to court; who, thinking him to be the ſame gentleman that had done him ſuch great kindneſs in Italy, immediately alighted, embraced him, and with tears of joy aſked him, if he was not Signior Francis Freſcobald, a Florentine merchant? "Yes, ſir (ſaid he), and your moſt humble ſervant." "My ſervant! (ſaid the chancellor,) no; you are my ſpecial friend, that relieved me in my wants, laid the foundation of my greatneſs, and, as ſuch, I receive you; and, ſince the affairs of my ſovereign will not now permit a longer conference, I beg you will oblige me this day with your company at my houſe to dinner with me." Signior Freſcobald was ſurpriſed and aſtoniſhed with admiration who this great man ſhould be that acknowledged ſuch obligations, and ſo paſſionately expreſſed a kindneſs for him: but, contemplating a while his voice, his mien, and carriage, he concludes it to be Cromwell, whom he had relieved at Florence; and therefore, not a little overjoyed, goes to his houſe, and attended his coming. His lordſhip came ſoon after; and, immediately taking his friend by the hand, turns to the lord-high-admiral and other noblemen in his company, "Don't your lordſhips wonder that I am ſo glad to ſee this gentleman? this is he who firſt contributed to my advancement." He then told them the whole ſtory, and, holding him ſtill by the hand, led him into the dining-room, and placed him next himſelf at table. The company being gone, the chancellor made uſe of this opportunity to know what affair had brought him into England. Freſcobald in few words gave him the true ſtate of his circumſtances: to which Cromwell replied, "I am ſorry for your misfortunes, and I will make them as eaſy to you as I can; but, becauſe men ought to be juſt before they are kind, it is fit I ſhould repay the debt I owe you." Then, leading him into his cloſet, he locked the door; and, opening a coffer, firſt took out ſixteen ducats, delivered them to Freſcobald, and ſaid, "My friend, here is the money you lent me at Florence, with ten pieces you laid out for my apparel, and ten more you paid for my horſe; but, conſidering you are a merchant, and might have made ſome advantage by this money in the way of trade, take theſe four bags, in every one of which is four hundred ducats, and enjoy them as the free gift of your friend." Theſe the modeſty of Freſcobald would have refuſed, but the other forced them upon him. He next cauſed him to give him the names of all his debtors, and the ſums they owed: which account he tranſmitted to one of his ſervants, with a charge to find out the men, and oblige them to pay him in fifteen days, under the penalty of his diſpleaſure; and the ſervant ſo well diſcharged his duty, that in a ſhort time the entire ſum was paid. All this time Signior Freſcobald lodged in the chancellor's houſe, where he was entertained according to his merits, with repeated perſuaſions for his continuance in England, and an offer of the loan of ſixty thouſand ducats for four years if he would trade here: but he deſired to return to Florence, which he did, with extraordinary favours from the Lord Cromwell.

There is a ſpecies of grateful remorſe, which ſometimes has been known to operate forcibly on the minds of the moſt hardened in impudence. Of this Mr. Andrews, who makes the remark, gives an inſtance in the following anecdote, ſaid to have been a favourite one with the late Dr. Campbell:—"Towards the beginning of this century, an actor, celebrated for mimicry, was to have been employed by a comic author, to take off the perſon, the manner, and the ſingular aukward delivery, of the celebrated Dr. Woodward, who was intended to be introduced on the ſtage in a laughable character, (viz. in that of Dr. Foſſile, in Three Hours after Marriage.) The mimic dreſſed himſelf as a countryman, and waited on the doctor with a long catalogue of ailments, which he ſaid attended on his wife. The phyſician heard with amazement diſeaſes and pains of the moſt oppoſite nature, repeated and redoubled on the wretched patient. For, ſince the actor's greateſt wiſh was to keep Dr. Woodward in his company

company as long as poſſible, that he might make the more obſervations on his geſtures, he loaded his poor imaginary ſpouſe with every infirmity which had any probable chance of prolonging the interview. At length, being become completely maſter of his errand, he drew from his purſe a guinea, and, with a ſcrape, made an uncouth offer of it. 'Put up thy money, poor fellow,' cried the doctor; 'thou haſt need of all thy caſh and all thy patience too, with ſuch a bundle of diſeaſes tied to thy back.' The actor returned to his employer, and recounted the whole converſation, with ſuch true feeling of the phyſician's character, that the author ſcreamed with approbation. His raptures were ſoon checked; for the mimic told him, with the emphaſis of ſenſibility, 'that he would ſooner die than proſtitute his talents to the rendering ſuch genuine humanity a public laughing-ſtock.' The player's name was Griffin."

ADVANTAGES OF CIVILITY.

CIVILITY is juſtly inculcated by didactic writers as a duty of no ſlight conſideration. Without civility, or good-breeding, a court would be the ſeat of violence and deſolation. There, all the paſſions are in fermentation, becauſe all purſue what but few can obtain; there, if enemies did not embrace, they would ſtab; there, ſmiles are often put on to conceal tears; there, mutual ſervices are profeſſed, while mutual injuries are intended; and there, the guile of the ſerpent ſimulates the gentleneſs of the dove. To what a degree muſt good-breeding adorn the beauty of truth, when it can thus ſoften the deformity of falſehood? On this ſubject we might offer the following obſervations.

However juſt the complaints of the miſery of life, yet great occaſions for the diſplay of beneficence and liberality do not often occur. But there is an hourly neceſſity for the little kind offices of mutual civility. At the ſame time that they give pleaſure to others, they add to our own happineſs and improvement. Habitual acts of kindneſs have a powerful effect in ſoftening the heart. An intercourſe with poliſhed and humane company tends to improve the diſpoſition, becauſe it requires a conformity of manners. And it is certain, that a ſenſe of decorum, and of a proper external behaviour, will reſtrain thoſe whoſe natural temper would otherwiſe break out in acrimonious and petulant converſation. Even the affectation of philanthropy will in time contribute to realiſe it. The pleaſure reſulting from an act of kindneſs naturally excites a wiſh to repeat it; and indeed the general eſteem which the character of benevolence procures is ſufficient to induce thoſe to wiſh for it who act only from the mean motives of ſelf-intereſt.

As we are placed in a world where natural evil abounds, we ought to render it ſupportable to each other as far as human endeavours can avail. All that can add a ſweet ingredient to the bitter cup muſt be infuſed. Amidſt the multitude of thorns, every flower that will grow muſt be cultivated with care. But neither pomp nor power are of themſelves able to alleviate the load of life. The heart requires to be ſoothed by ſympathy. A thouſand little attentions from all around us are neceſſary to render our days agreeable. The appearance of neglect in any of thoſe with whom we are connected, chills our boſom with chagrin, or kindles the fire of reſentment. Nothing therefore ſeems ſo likely to enſure happineſs as our mutual endeavours to promote it. Our ſingle endeavours, originating and terminating in ourſelves, are uſually unſucceſsful. Providence has taken care to ſecure that intercourſe which is neceſſary to the exiſtence of ſociety, by rendering it the greateſt ſweetener of human life.

By reciprocal attentions we are enabled to become beneficent without expence. A ſmile, an affable addreſs, a look of approbation, are often capable of giving a greater pleaſure than pecuniary benefits can beſtow. The mere participation of the ſtudies and amuſements of others, at the ſame time that it gratifies ourſelves, is often an act of real humanity; becauſe others would

would not enjoy them without companions. A friendly viſit in a ſolitary hour is often a greater act of kindneſs than a valuable preſent.

It is really matter of ſurpriſe, that thoſe who are diſtinguiſhed by rank and opulence ſhould ever be unpopular in their neighbourhood. They muſt know the value of popularity; and ſurely nothing is more eaſily obtained by a ſuperior. Their notice confers honour; and the aſpiring heart of man is always delighted with diſtinction. A gracious look from them diffuſes happineſs on the lower ranks. But it uſually happens, that an overgrown rich man is not the favourite of a neighbouring country; and it is unfortunate, that pride or inadvertence often prevent men from acting the god-like part of making others happy, even when it would add the ſame bleſſing to themſelves.

ACCOUNT OF THE HARBOUR, ROAD, &c. OF TOULON.

With a beautiful Copper-plate View of the French Ships, diſmantled and laſhed together, and guarded by the Britiſh Fleet commanded by Vice-admiral Lord Hood; and an elegant Portrait of that noble Commander.

TOULON is extremely well ſituated, being open to the ſouth, and ſheltered to the north by very high mountains, which render its port one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in the world. The city is pretty large: is about ten leagues eaſt from Marſeilles, twenty-four ſouth-weſt from Nice, and one hundred and twenty-five ſouth from Paris. It is a ſtrong city, adorned with ſeveral churches, monaſteries, and other public edifices. Henry IV. fortified it with ſtrong walls, and built two large moles, each of which is ſeven hundred paces long, incloſing almoſt the whole port; near them is alſo an arſenal, furniſhed with all ſorts of naval ſtores, whence the largeſt ſhips of the French navy are uſually fitted out; and, for their ſecurity, the fortifications were greatly increaſed by Louis XIV.

On two ſides of the city, viz. the north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt, lie very ſteep and inacceſſible hills; that on the north-eaſt, called St. Anne's, perfectly commands the town, and ſinks with a declivity on that ſide; but, on the country-ſide, it is a perpendicular rock.

The city is, on the ſea-ſide, extremely well defended by batteries flanking all the avenues. In the mouth of the harbour lies a ſtockade or boom, between which and a narrow neck of land there is a good deep channel, ſecured by a large tower, whereon are mounted thirty guns, twenty-four pounders. This tower our fleet, under Sir Cloudeſly Shovel, endeavoured to take, and would have effected it, if an unlucky ſhot had not blown up the magazine of powder in Fort St. Lawrence.

The port of Toulon is one of the fineſt in Europe:—You enter firſt into a large and very ſafe road, defended by ſeveral batteries and forts. At one of the extremities of this road lies the port, the entrance of which is ſo narrow, that only one ſhip at a time can enter it, and is well defended by ſeveral batteries mounted with cannon.

Vice-admiral Lord Hood, with a Britiſh fleet, inveſted this important place in Auguſt 1793; on the 25th of which month the whole garriſon unanimouſly agreed to ſurrender in truſt to his lordſhip, as the repreſentative of the King of Great Britain, until the preſent diſputes with France are finally adjuſted, when the ſame ſhould be reſtored to Louis XVII. In conſequence whereof, the French fleet at anchor in this port, conſiſting of ſeventeen ſhips of war, were immediately ordered into the inner harbour, their crews diſcharged, the ſhips diſmantled and laſhed together, that in caſe of an inſurrection among the inhabitants, or of being overpowered by the land-forces, the whole might be ſet on fire, and at once deſtroyed. But, as theſe ſhips would lie much more ſecure in Portſmouth harbour, and could with equal facility be given up whenever the diſpute is terminated, and a compenſation made for the blood and treaſure it will coſt this nation to place Louis XVII. upon the throne, it is expected theſe ſhips will very ſhortly be ordered home, as Lord Hood's fleet ſtill ſurrounds them, and can bring them under jury maſts, whenever orders are iſſued for that purpoſe.

POETRY.

POETRY.

The TOKEN.

FROM DIBDIN'S CASTLES IN THE AIR.

THE breeze was freſh, the ſhip in ſtays,
Each breaker huſh'd, the ſhore a haze;
When Jack, no more on duty call'd,
His true-love's tokens overhaul'd:—
The broken gold—the braided hair—
The tender motto written fair
Upon his 'bacco-box he views,—
Nancy the poet, love the muſe:
"If you loves I as I loves you,
No pair ſo happy as we two."

The ſtorm,—that like a ſhapeleſs wreck
Had ſtrew'd with ruin all the deck,
That tars for ſharks had giv'n a feaſt,
And left the ſhip a hulk,—had ceas'd:
When Jack, as with his meſſmates dear
He ſhar'd the grog their hearts to cheer,
Took from his 'bacco-box a quid,
And ſpell'd for comfort on the lid,
"If you loves I as I loves you,
No pair ſo happy as we two."

The battle,—that with horror grim
Had madly ravag'd life and limb,
Had ſcuppers drench'd with human gore,
And widow'd many a wife,—was o'er:
When Jack to his companions dear
Firſt paid the tribute of a tear;
Then, as his 'bacco-box he held,
Reſtor'd his comfort as he ſpell'd,
"If you loves I as I loves you,
No pair ſo happy as we two."

The voyage,—that had been long and hard,
But that had yielded full reward,
That brought each ſailor to his friend
Happy and rich,—was at an end:
When Jack, his toils and perils o'er,
Beheld his Nancy on the ſhore;
He then his 'bacco-box diſplay'd,
And cry'd, and ſeiz'd the yielding maid,
"If you loves I as I loves you,
No pair ſo happy as we two."

RETALIATION.

AN EPIGRAM.

DRUSILLA had oft by her huſband been told,
The neighbours all knew her a termagant ſcold;
For himſelf, he was ſeldom permitted to ſpeak,
And was curſedly hen-peck'd, like poor Jerry Sneak.
At length in revenge ſhe cornuted her ſpouſe,
To let the world know—he was head of the houſe.

FRANCE and ENGLAND.

When, during the late war, there was a rumour of an invaſion by the French, Hogarth engraved two prints, entitled France and England, to ridicule the idea. Beneath the prints are two inſcriptions, written by the late David Garrick, but not inſerted in the volume of his Poems. The firſt is

FRANCE.

WITH lanthorn jaws and croaking gut
See how the half-ſtarv'd Frenchmen ſtrut,
And call us Engliſh dogs;
But ſoon we'll teach theſe braggings foes,
That beef and beer give heavier blows
Than ſoup and roaſted frogs.

The prieſts inflam'd with righteous hopes
Prepare their axes, wheels, and ropes,
To bend the ſtiff-neck'd ſinner;
But, ſhould they ſink in coming over,
Old Nick may fiſh 'twixt France and Dover,
And catch a glorious dinner.

ENGLAND.

See John the ſoldier, Jack the tar,
With ſword and piſtol arm'd for war.
Should Mounſeer dare come here!
The hungry ſlaves have ſmelt our food,
They long to taſte our fleſh and blood,
Old England's beef and beer!

Britons, to arms, and let 'em come,
Be you but Britons, ſtill ſtrike home,
And lion-like attack 'em,
No power can ſtand the deadly ſtroke
That's given from hands and hearts of oak,
With Liberty to back 'em.

Inſcription for the Monument of Miſs W.

HERE, cold in duſt, her beauteous form is laid,
Whoſe native worth to pure perfection roſe:
Soft be thy peaceful ſlumber, gentle maid!
And ſacred be the ſcene of thy repoſe.

Chaſte pity oft will draw her mournful throng
To view the ſhade where fair Suſanna lies;
And meek-ey'd melancholy tarry long;
While fond remembrance vents her grief in ſighs.

And here the gentle form of love will mourn,
And friendſhip's lucid eye diſſolve in tears;
Till holy faith, and inſpiration, turn
The hope of weeping ſorrow to the ſpheres!

A favourite AMAZONIAN SONG.

SWAINS I ſcorn who nice and fair
Shiver at the morning air;
Rough and hardy, bold and free,
Be the man that's made for me.
Rough and hardy, &c.

Free from faſhion, free from dreſs,
Fops alone themſelves careſs.
Let them without rival be;
They are not the men for me.
Let them, &c.

'Tis he, whoſe nervous arm can dart
The jav'lin to the tyger's heart;
From all ſenſe of danger free,
He's the man that's made for me.
From all ſenſe, &c.

Nor ſimpering ſmile, nor dimple ſleek,
Spoil his manly ſun-burnt cheek;
By weather let him painted be,
He's the man that's made for me.
By weather, &c.

While his ſpeed outſtrips the wind,
Looſely flow his locks behind;
From fantaſtic foppery free,
He's the man that's made for me.
From fantaſtic, &c.

If falſe he proves, my jav'lin can
Revenge the perjury of the man;
And ſoon another brave as he
Shall be found the man for me.
And ſoon another, &c.

The WEATHER-GAUGE.

BY DR. CRANE.

THE weather-gauge old Hawke ne'er thought about,
With which our modern chiefs make ſuch a rout,
To windward—or to leeward—'twas all one,
When he came up the bus'neſs ſoon was done;
Not handſomely perhaps,—but well enough,
For a plain man, in action rather rough,
Uncivil—rude—as Frenchmen us'd to ſay,
He ſcarce allow'd them time to run away;
Short were his orders—and his ſignals few
Not ſcientific over-much—or new:
As having reference to little more
Than juſt to take, or ſink, or run aſhore,
Burn—or blow up—or otherwiſe annoy—
Thoſe it became his duty to deſtroy:
All which he did in ſuch an aukward way,
We ne'er ſhall ſee the like again, they ſay,
But if we ſhould—ſuch blunders we'll allow,
Nor ever aſk an explanation—HOW?

2

Tranſlation of an INSCRIPTION, engraved on a tablet of marble, at the expence of the Marquis of Buckingham, erected, in teſtimony of their gratitude to his moſt ſacred Majeſty George III King of Great Britain, and to the Britiſh Nation in general, by more than 600 FRENCH CLERGYMEN *collected together in the King's Houſe at* WINCHESTER, *and ſupported by the public munificence; and by them placed in the private Chapel of the ſaid Houſe.*

By the favour of God
May GEORGE THE THIRD,
The pious King of Great-Britain,
Live long in ſafety,
The delight and ornament of his own country,
The admiration and protector of foreigners.
May the generous Britiſh Nation
Rejoice in the bleſſing of eternal peace,
And be ever famous
For its piety, its knowledge, and its riches.
Which, forgetful of its rival enmity,
Like a fond parent,
Received kindly into its hoſpitable boſom,
Protected eagerly,
Maintained liberally,
By a voluntary ſubſcription of all ranks of men,
And cheriſhed tenderly,
No inconſiderable part
Of the Gallic Clergy
Driven out of their native country,
And toſſed about by ſea and land.
May the excellent Britiſh Senator
JOHN WILMOT
Enjoy conſtant happineſs;
May happineſs attend alſo
Thoſe choice and upright men.
Who are, together with him,
The prudent diſpenſers
Of the public munificence.
Thus the Gallic Clergy
Scattered throughout the Britiſh Empire
Eagerly implores the Supreme Governor of all things.
Thus do alſo thoſe of the ſame Clergy
Continually pray, proſtrate before their altars,
Who, by ſingular favour, live collected
In this Royal Houſe.
They
Have cauſed to be engraven
This ſmall pledge of their gratitude,
For a perpetual memorial,
In the year of our Lord 1793,
And in the thirty-third year of the reign of George the Third.

The fond record of theſe munificent acts will remain much longer on the tablet of our memories, than the record of them on the tablet of marble.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN NEWS.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

WHITEHALL, *Nov.* 20.

THE diſpatches of which the following are extracts and copy, were yeſterday received at the office of the Right Honourable Henry Dundas from Lord Mulgrave.

TOULON, *October* 18.

Sir, On the 14th of October, at eleven o'clock in the morning, I perceived the army of General Carteaux, to the weſtward of Toulon, to be formed in line, and advancing from the hill towards the redoubt of Malbouſquet. The garriſon of Toulon (leaving the neceſſary guards and a ſmall detachment to ſecure the tranquillity of the town) was marched out, to the number of about 3000, to take a defenſive poſition between the redoubts Malbouſquet and St. Antoine, and behind the riviere Neuve, a deep and dry canal laying north and ſouth in front of thoſe redoubts. Three bridges, which croſſed the canal on the roads to Brouſſan, Marſeilles, and the village of Six Fours, had been broken by my orders ſoon after my arrival at Toulon. In this poſition we had not any view of the enemy, who were concealed by intermediate hills between their line and the plain occupied by the garriſon of Toulon. I detached a captain, with 70 Britiſh and 30 Piedmonteſe chaſſeurs, to a riſing ground (the Hauteur des Arennes) beyond the riviere Neuve, to diſcover the movements of the enemy, with orders to remain there till I ſhould call them in if they ſaw no conſiderable body; but to return immediately if the enemy appeared in force, and on no account to engage in any way with the enemy ſo as to oblige me to march to their ſupport, as it was not my intention to make any attack, or to come to an action beyond the riviere Neuve; the ſmallneſs of our numbers, the impoſſibility of carrying our field-artillery acroſs the canal, and the certain information I had received that the enemy had numerous batteries on the ſtrong ground which they occupied, determined me to wait their attack (if they intended one) behind the riviere Neuve, and under the protection of the redoubts on the flanks of our poſition. Whilſt the patrole of 90 men proceeded to the hill pointed out to them, I was employed in forming the line of Britiſh and Piedmonteſe, and two battalions of Neapolitans. Before the line was completely formed, I heard the patrole of Britiſh engaged in a heavy fire with the enemy, and ſaw ſmall parties retreating: I ſent immediately the whole of the Piedmonteſe chaſſeurs to ſupport the patrole and bring them off. The appearance of this reinforcement had the effect of animating the advanced ſoldiers of the Britiſh, who, in ſpite of the remonſtrances of their officers, preſſed forward upon the enemy. The Piedmonteſe followed the example; and, as I found the whole detachment were advancing upon the enemy, I was obliged to march out with 200 Britiſh, three companies of the regiment de Piedmont, and half of each of the regiments of Neapolitan troops, leaving the remainder of my wing of the army to guard our poſition, and to check the enemy if they ſhould preſs upon us on our return. The patrole had puſhed on to a conſiderable diſtance, and had driven in all the advanced parties of the enemy, before I could bring them off, which, however, was effected with no further loſs than that which they had ſuſtained in the raſh but ſpirited enterpriſe of the ſoldiers, which obliged their officers to follow them to a diſtance of a mile and a half beyond the riviere Neuve. Night coming on, the enemy (having probably loſt ſeveral men from the vivacity with which they were preſſed) retired to their camp without attempting any attack. The garriſon marched back to Toulon at about ten o'clock at night.

On the 15th in the morning the unfortunate affair of Cape le Brun took place: I ſend you a copy of Governor Elphinſtone's report of this action to Vice-admiral Lord Hood.

LA MALGUE, *Oct.* 16.

My lord, I have the honour to inform your lordſhip, that, in conſequence of the enemy's having repeatedly appeared on the important hill of Cape Brun, which overlooks this fort, and commands a great part of the harbour, I ordered 100 men of Huſſeins, or battalion of Royal Louis, to be poſted there, with the engineers, to prepare for its defence; and, after they had marked out the ſituation of an intended work, I ſent a reinforcement of 100 men of the regiment of Royal Louis. On the 15th before day, the report of muſquetry was heard, which increaſed with the light, and induced me to order 100 of the 30th regiment, 100 Neapolitans, 50 Spaniards, and the remainder of Royal Louis, to follow me there. By the time I got to the bottom of the hill,

the fire was become very briſk, and I had ſome difficulty to get up by the road. The troops from La Malgue were nearly up, by a ſhorter road through vineyards. I detached Capt. Torriano, of the 30th, to go round the left of the hill, and take the enemy on their right flank. This had the deſired effect, and they gave way. On the top of the hill I found the Royal Louis defending themſelves gallantly, although hard preſſed, but the out-poſts driven in, and the men in want of cartridges. I advanced with the freſh troops, and recovered our out-poſts, after an obſtinate reſiſtance; and placed Capt. Tomlinſon, of the 30th, in advance, the Neapolitans in the centre, Capt. Torriano on the left, with the Royal Louis and the Spaniſh troops on the right; and it was near an hour before the enemy retired. They were ſupported by cannon: we had none. I had previouſly ſent an aid-du-camp to La Malgue for cartridges, and to Toulon for ſupport of troops. The enemy, notwithſtanding they were greater in force than I expected, did not ſeem diſpoſed to renew the attack; inſomuch, that I ordered the workmen to begin the redoubt, viſited the poſts, and then returned to the fort for the purpoſe of hurrying up guns, ammunition, proviſions, &c. and repeating my requeſt of men from Toulon. In half an hour after I had left Cape Brun, the whole army of the enemy had advanced under cover of woods, and ſupported by artillery attacked the poſt on all ſides, and carried it in conſequence of numbers, notwithſtanding a moſt diſtinguiſhed reſiſtance. The fortunate recovery of the poſt was ſo immediately under your lordſhip's eye, that it is unneceſſary for me to add more than that I have the honour to be, &c.

G. K. ELPHINSTONE.

Total Return of the Killed, Wounded, and Miſſing, Oct. 15, on Cape Brun.—2 Captains, 1 lieutenant, 9 rank and file, killed; 1 captain, 2 lieutenants, 35 rank and file, wounded; 2 lieutenants, 19 rank and file, miſſing.

Names of Officers Killed, Wounded, and Miſſing.

30th regiment. Captain Torriano killed, Lieut. Hamilton wounded, Lieut. Shewbridge miſſing.—— Lieut. Bambridge, of the royal navy, aid-du-camp to Governor Elphinſtone, wounded.

Regiment of Royal Louis. Capt. Thomaſſon, Lieut. Simmonet, killed; Capt. Buret, Lieut. D'Arno, wounded; Enſign Kear made priſoner.

Lord Mulgrave in continuation.

As ſoon as the report came to me of Cape Brun being attacked and requiring ſuccour, I ordered the garriſon picquet to turn out immediately, and the remainder of the troops to get under arms, and ſent the report I had received to the general officers commanding the foreign troops. Before the picquet of 100 men had got beyond the gate of the town, a report came of our troops having been repulſed from Cape Brun; that they had retired into Fort La Malgue; and that the whole army of Gen. La Poype had been marched from La Garde for the attack of Cape Brun, and were at that time in poſſeſſion of it.

We marched out of the gate d'Italie as ſoon as the garriſon could be collected under arms, conſiſting of the ſame numbers as the day before, with eight field-pieces and two 18-pounders, with the addition of 60 Spaniſh dragoons of 160 which landed on the 12th inſtant, (the remaining horſes not being yet fit for ſervice.)

Having reconnoitered the ſituation of the enemy, I found they had abandoned Cape Brun, and had formed their whole force further to the eaſtward, on the Hauteur le Pradel, with their left covered by the caſtle St Marguerite, which has two 12-pounders pointed to the land ſide; their field-pieces were diſtributed along the front of their line. It occurred to me that the moſt ſafe and effectual mode of diſlodging them from their ſtrong poſt would be to march immediately forward, under protection of our forts, on the ſide of mount Pharon, to proceed towards La Valette, and ſtrike off to the Hauteurs de Thouars, about a mile eaſtward of La Valette, and commanding La Garde at ſomething more than a quarter of a mile diſtance from that village. It was my intention to occupy Thouars and La Garde, by which we ſhould command the whole plain and the two great roads, one leading to Hieres, and paſſing to the eaſtward of La Garde, the other paſſing through La Valette and leading to Souliers. Generals Squierdo and Pignatelli being of the ſame opinion with me, we proceeded on the road to La Valette, leaving 140 men with two 18-pounders in that village (under protection of the guns of Fort Pharon) to maſk the Vallon de Favieres, and prevent the enemy from ſending reinforcements by that paſs from their poſts at Tounis and Le Reveſt. At the commencement of our march, the enemy expected an attack, and drew up their force; as we proceeded, they appeared in ſome degree of hurry and confuſion, and at length quitted their poſt to march towards La Garde,

Garde. Unfortunately, from an error of the guide, the Spaniſh troops, which led the column, were carried beyond the point at which they ſhould have gained the Hauteurs de Thouars; and when the rear diviſion of the column, compoſed of the Britiſh and Piedmonteſe troops, which was to have formed the left of the line, arrived at the foot of that hill, we found the advance formed with their right to the Hauteurs and their left extending toward La Valette. Immediately I marched the Britiſh and Piedmonteſe troops to the top of the Hauteurs de Thouars, taking the right of our poſition; the Spaniſh and part of the Neapolitan troops came up on our left. It was with great regret that I perceived the enemy (who had preſſed their march rapidly) entering La Garde at the moment we poſſeſſed ourſelves of the Hauteurs de Thouars. By the activity and exertions of Col. Minichini of the Albaneſe Neapolitan corps, and Capt. Collier of the Britiſh artillery, we got our field-pieces to the top of the hills, through very ſteep and difficult paſſages. The enemy made various movements, but without attempting any thing more than a cannonade from La Garde, which we returned, and diſmounted one of their guns. When night ſet in, they began to remove with their artillery towards Hieres. I ſent forward a patrole under Capt. Moncrief of the 11th regiment conſiſting of 100 Britiſh troops, a company of Piedmonteſe grenadiers, and the grenadier company of the Spaniſh Swiſs regiment of Betchar, to find whether they had evacuated La Garde. This patrole was fired upon by a ſtrong rear-guard, poſted in vineyards and in the houſes of the village, which cover the ſides of a ſugar-loaf hill, the top of which is crowned by an old caſtle. The main object of our movement having been obtained, by the retreat of the enemy from the ſituation they had occupied in the morning near St. Marguerite, it would have been highly imprudent to have ſacrificed any part of our ſmall force in the attack of a ſtrong village, which we muſt of neceſſity have abandoned the next morning. The troops having been much fatigued the day before, and left (by the miſmanagement of the perſons charged at Toulon with the ſupply of proviſions) without any food till ten o'clock at night, it was at that hour determined to march back into the town.

Total Return of the Killed, Wounded, and Miſſing, on the 14th of October, 1793, near Malbouſquet.—4 rank and file killed; 2 captains, 3 lieutenants, 1 ſerjeant, 28 rank and file, wounded; 2 rank and file miſſing.

MULGRAVE, Acting Brig. Gen.

WHITEHALL, *Nov.* 23.

This morning Lord George Conway arrived here with a diſpatch from the Earl of Yarmouth, dated Fort Louis, Nov. 15, 1793, mentioning, that the ſiege of that place had been commenced by General Wurmſur on the 10th inſtant, and that the garriſon had ſurrendered themſelves priſoners of war, to the amount of 4000 men, on the 14th. One hundred and twelve pieces of artillery of different ſizes, fifteen cannons, and a great number of live-ſtock, are alſo in the poſſeſſion of the Auſtrians. The loſs on the part of the latter conſiſted in 24 men killed, and about 30 wounded. The garriſon marched out on the 16th.

Extract of a letter from Sir James Murray to Mr. Secretary Dundas, dated Tournay, November 19.

Upon the 16th inſtant, Col. Salis, with part of the garriſon of Ypres, marched againſt Poperinghue, which the enemy had been in poſſeſſion of for ſome time, and where they had the appearance of intending to eſtabliſh themſelves in force. They are, however, driven from that poſt, with the loſs of 45 priſoners, of which four are officers, one howitzer, and one tumbril, which were taken by Col. Salis, without any loſs on his part.

WHITEHALL, *Dec.* 3.

A letter, of which the following is an extract, was yeſterday received from Sir James Murray, adjutant-general to the forces under the command of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, dated Tournay, Nov. 29, by the Right Hon. Henry Dundas:

"The army remained in a ſtate of tranquillity until yeſterday, about two o'clock in the afternoon, when the enemy attacked Nechin and Leers, two advanced poſts, occupied each by about 100 men. They advanced in conſiderable force, particularly againſt Nechi, and made their attack with great rapidity. The detachment poſted there, which was a picquet from the grenadier battalion of Heſſe Darmſtadt, and half a company of the imperial free corps of O'Donnel, defended the poſt for ſome time with great gallantry; but, being obliged to yield to the ſuperiority of numbers, they retreated towards Bailleul, whilſt the detachment which occupied Leers, to avoid being ſurrounded, fell back to Eſtainbourg. Major-general During, however, who had repaired upon the firſt alarm to the point of attack, having brought up the light

light infantry battalion of Darmſtadt from Eſtainbourg and Peck, and a party of the Hanoverian cavalry, under the command of Colonel Linſingen, having advanced from Templeuve, the enemy were driven back, and the poſts re-occupied.

"The Darmſtadt troops had two men killed; Captain Von Shonberg and ſeven men wounded: Captain Von Becker, who was likewiſe wounded, and four men taken. The corps of O'Donnell had ſix men wounded, and two taken. The Hanoverian cavalry, one man wounded. The loſs of the enemy was greater; ſeveral were found dead in the village of Nechin, and ſeven or eight taken."

GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

WHITEHALL, *Dec.* 9.

Extract of a Letter from Colonel Sir James Murray, Adjutant General to the Forces under the command of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, to Mr. Secretary Dundas, dated Tournay, December 3, 1793.

THE enemy made an attack the 30th of laſt month upon General Walmoden's advanced poſts upon the Lys. They paſſed that river, about one o'clock in the afternoon, at Comines and Bouſbecke, where they had conſtructed bridges; that at Bouſbecke under the protection of four pieces of cannon.

At the latter place they had paſſed over with about 200 men, when Major Linſingen, with fourteen men of the 9th regiment of Hanoverian light cavalry, and the firſt battalion of the grenadiers of the ſame nation, with which he had advanced upon the firſt alarm, attacked them without heſitation, though he was expoſed to a ſevere fire of grape-ſhot from the oppoſite ſide of the river. The enemy's detachment was entirely defeated and deſtroyed, five officers and forty-eight men being taken, and the reſt killed. The conduct and bravery of Major Linſingen, and the behaviour of the troops under his command, are ſpoken of by General Walmoden in terms of the higheſt commendation. The Hanoverians had two officers (Lieutenants Aly and Martin) wounded, four men killed, and eight wounded.

That body of the enemy which paſſed the Lys at Comines drove back the poſts at Ten Briel and Sandtforde, which were occupied by a company and a half of the imperial free corps of Grun Laudohn. A party of about two or three hundred men penetrated between thoſe and the other poſts, ſo that this detachment was almoſt entirely cut off, and upwards of one hundred men have either been killed or fallen into their hands. Upon the arrival of a reinforcement, which had been ſent by General Walmoden to the ſupport of Sandtforde and Ten Briel, the enemy fell back, and the different corps have taken up their former poſitions.

WHITEHALL, *Dec.* 9.

Copy of a Letter from Major-General Williamſon, dated Jamaica, October 8, 1793.

SIR,

I HAD the honour to inform you, in my letter of the 8th of September, that the next day the 13th regiment, the two flank companies of the 49th, and a detachment of artillery, were to ſail, to take poſſeſſion of Jeremie, the propoſitions of capitulation having been accepted.

Commodore Ford, in whoſe praiſe I cannot ſay too much, ſailed with the expedition. The greateſt part of the troops were embarked on-board his majeſty's ſhips. Tranſports were neceſſary for the proviſions and ſtores.

The whole arrived at Jeremie the 19th in the evening; and a deputation was ſent from the council, requeſting the Engliſh colours, that they might be immediately hoiſted; but it was judged beſt to land early the next morning, when the whole diſembarked, and the colours were hoiſted at both forts, with two ſalutes of twenty-one guns, and anſwered by the commodore and his ſquadron. The troops were received with the loudeſt acclamations from all ranks.

I mentioned in my letter, that a Monſ. Carles, of the etat-major of the Mole, was on-board of the commodore.

The commodore only remained a few hours at Jeremie after the troops were landed, and ſailed for the Mole, where he arrived the 22d, and ſent Monſ. Carles on-ſhore. The next day, at ſeven in the morning, a deputation of twenty perſons came on-board the commodore, who was cruizing off the entrance of the Mole, to inform him, that they wiſhed to accept of the ſame capitulation as Jeremie, and begged the commodore to grant it them, which was accordingly done, and the Europa ſailed up the harbour. When the fort at Preſque Iſle ſaw the ſhip under way, they fired three guns as a ſignal, and hoiſted the Engliſh colours, the ſame at Fort Orleans; and when the Europa came to anchor ſhe was ſaluted with twenty-one guns from all the forts and all the veſſels in the harbour, which was anſwered by the commodore. Fifty marines were landed, under Capt. Robertſon, who took the command of the garriſon. The commodore ſent a faſt-ſailing ſchooner to Jeremie for ſome troops. The grenadier-

company

company of the 13th regiment was immediately embarked, and arrived at the Mole on the 28th.

It being a place of ſuch importance, and literally the key of St. Domingo, I judged it neceſſary to ſtrengthen the garriſon; accordingly Lieutenant colonel Danſey, with five companies of the 49th regiment, ſailed the 7th on-board two of the frigates; and I ſhall order the remaining three companies to hold themſelves in readineſs for embarkation on-board of another frigate.

I have the honour to be, &c.

ADAM WILLIAMSON.

Right Hon. Henry Dundas, &c. &c.

Return of Ordnance, Ammunition, and Artillery Stores, in the Magazines, upon the Batteries, and in the different Poſts eſtabliſhed in the Mole Town and its dependencies, September 25, 1793.

Powder, lbs. - -	146,024
Cannon, (127 iron, 9 braſs)	136
Carriages, - - -	157
Iron Mortars, 12-inch, -	23
Iron Beds for 12-inch Mortars,	23
Shells for 12-inch Mortars, -	1,434
Round Shot, - -	10,359
Grape Shot, - -	1,717
Cartridges for infantry, -	40,000
Ditto, langrege, - -	1,460
Lead, lbs. - -	10,420
Muſquets, - -	550
Slow Matches, lbs. - -	200

Given at the Mole the 25th of September, 1793.

(Signed) DUMAS, Principal Storekeeper.

EUROPA, Mole of Cape St. Nicholas, *October 27.*

In addition to my letter of the 26th ult.* you will be pleaſed to inform their lordſhips, that the Flying Fiſh ſchooner, which I ſent to Colonel Whitelock at Jeremie with a requiſition for a ſmall force for the preſent, returned on the 28th ult. with the grenadier-company of the 13th regiment; and his majeſty's ſhips Penelope and Iphigenia arrived on the 11th and 12th inſtant from Jamaica with five companies of the 49th regiment, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Danſey, whom Governor Williamſon has appointed commandant of this diſtrict. On the arrival of theſe ſhips I was informed of the ſucceſs of the frigates which I had ordered to make a diverſion at Flamande-bay, near St. Louis, and have incloſed an account of the captures they made, though their merchant-ſhips, to a conſiderable amount, had eſcaped to Aux Cayes, upon their receiving intelligence of the Britiſh troops being landed at Jeremie.

You will alſo acquaint their lordſhips, that I ſeized, upon my arrival here, a large ſchooner in the ſervice of the republic, commanded by M. Anquetin, formerly a lieutenant of the Jupiter; and, as ſhe is a very fine veſſel, mounting ten ſix and four pounders, I have taken her into his majeſty's ſervice. The ſchooner was at that time called the National Convention, but formerly the Marie Antoinette, which laſt name I have thought proper to continue, and have given the command of her to Lieutenant Perkins, an officer of zeal, vigilance, and activity.

I have alſo to acquaint their lordſhips that we have hitherto remained in ſecurity; but the civil commiſſaries, upon their receiving accounts that the Mole was in our poſſeſſion, had prepared an expedition to attack it, and had actually proceeded as far as Port au Paix, with the Hyæna and ſeveral other armed tranſports and ſmall craft, with all the troops that could be collected, amounting to five thouſand or upwards; but, the frigates arriving very opportunely from Jamaica, I was enabled to block them up in that port, where they ſtill remain; and, as Mr. Santhonax has in conſequence gone by land to Port au Prince, I am in great hopes that, by this means, the expedition will be entirely fruſtrated.

I am, &c. JOHN FORD.

An Account of Reprizals made by his Majeſty's Ships at L'Iſlet on the 23d, and at Flamande-bay the 29th, of Sept. 1793.

At L'ISLET.

Ship Ceres, 300 tons, laden with ſugar, coffee, cotton, and cocoa.

A Spaniſh brig, 180 tons, laded with Malaga wine, Spaniſh brandy, and raiſins.

A ſloop, 80 tons, laden with fuſtic.

A ſchooner, 80 tons, laden with ſugar, coffee, and cotton.

FLAMANDE-Bay.

Ship L'Eole, 800 tons, laden with ſugar, cotton, indigo, caſh about 3000l. currency.—Only half laden.

Ship Patriot, 350 tons, laden with ſugar, coffee, cotton, and indigo.

Brig Le Julien, 220 tons, nearly the ſame cargo.

Sloop Mary, laden with ſugar, cotton, and molaſſes.—Under American colours.

Schooner Juan Briton, 80 tons, laden with cotton, &c.

Schooner Egalité, 50 tons, in ballaſt.

Armed ſchooner Dauphin, 40 tons, ditto.

* This letter, as it contains only a recapitulation of the circumſtances mentioned in the preceding one from Major-general Williamſon, is not inſerted here.

LIST

LIST OF PRIZES, continued from Page 191.

THE Blonde, French frigate, of 28 guns, is arrived at Falmouth a prize to the Phaeton, which, in company with the Bellerophon, Vanguard, and two frigates, captured her a few leagues off Uſhant. She had left L'Orient only three days. The Blonde ſtruck to the Phaeton after one broadſide. There were two other men of war in company with the Phaeton. The Blonde, juſt captured by Sir A. S. Douglas, is the ſecond frigate of that name taken from the French, and now in the Britiſh navy. The other is of 32 guns.

The L'Eſpeigle, French ſloop of war, of 10 guns, is taken by the Circe frigate, of 28 guns, Captain Yorke.

The Guſtavus Adolphus, ——, from Stockholm to Corunna, taken by a French frigate, is retaken and carried into Penzance.

The Nymphe has captured and ſent into Falmouth a French corvette, mounting eighteen guns, and a Daniſh brig, laden with naval ſtores bound to Breſt, which ſhe cut off in going into that harbour.

A lieutenant of the Savage ſloop of war has brought intelligence to the admiralty of the capture of a Swediſh veſſel of 800 tons burthen, bound to Bourdeaux with naval ſtores.

The Thomas, ———, from Riga, taken by a French man of war, is retaken by the Hebe frigate, of 28 guns, Captain Hood.

The Romney frigate has been cruizing off the iſlands of Sardinia and Corſica, where ſhe captured a brig, freighted with a valuable cargo of ſilks, and ſent her into Leghorn.

The Carrier, M'Donald from Glaſgow, is retaken by the Fox privateer, and carried into Bermuda.

Advices have been received at the admiralty, that the Alligator privateer, of Jerſey, has taken two valuable Daniſh ſhips, laden with military ſtores for Breſt, and ſent them into that iſland.

The Atlas, Chriſtmas, from London to Barcelona, has been taken by a French frigate, and ſince retaken by the Pigmy cutter, and arrived at Portſmouth.—The following are the particulars of the above re-capture. The French captain, after taking out the maſter and crew of the Engliſh veſſel (except the mate), put on-board ſeven Frenchmen to carry the veſſel into Breſt. When they arrived off Morlaix, the Engliſhman, finding they were little acquainted with their own road, and did not know where they were, perſuaded them they were in the Bay of Biſcay, and adviſed their ſteering a north-eaſt courſe, to clear Uſhant, which the Frenchmen accordingly did, without diſcovering the trick that had been played them till they were cloſe in with the Needles at the back of the Iſle of Wight, where they were boarded by a Cowes pilot, who kindly undertook to aſſiſt them in carrying their prize into port, which he accordingly did, by bringing them ſafely to anchor in Cowes road, where, being boarded by a boat from the Pigmy cutter, the Frenchmen, to their great ſurprize and mortification, found themſelves priſoners of war.

The Enterprize privateer, of Jerſey, has taken and ſent into Dartmouth a ſmall lugger from Belleiſle.

His majeſty's ſloop Seaflower has, we underſtand, captured a French Eaſt-India ſhip of conſiderable value.

The Roſe, ———, of Chriſtianſand, for Genoa; and Jonge Turmes, Terguſt, from Dantzic; taken by a French frigate, are retaken and arrived at Jerſey.

The Rebecca, Brown, from New York to Havre, is taken and carried into Guernſey.

The Prince of Wales, Thompſon, of Liverpool, has taken the Maryland, from Baltimore for Bourdeaux, and ſent her for Montſerrat.

The Defiance privateer, Capt. Dolbell, has taken and ſent into Jerſey, a veſſel loaded with wine and brandy, from Bourdeaux to Breſt.

By a letter from an officer in the Solebay, dated Antigua, Sept. 28, we learn that the Nautilus and Rattleſnake had been ſingularly ſucceſsful in taking prizes. The Blanche, Solebay, and Beaulieu, on the contrary, had not captured a ſingle veſſel.

Lord Hood's cruizers have captured and ſent into Gibraltar thirty ſail of French merchantmen. His majeſty's ſhip La Blanche arrived at St. Vincent's, with two prizes, on the 4th of October.

The Trial cutter, Lieutenant Maldon, has brought into the Downs a Swediſh veſſel, laden with military ſtores, and bound to Bourdeaux.

EXCELLENCE OF THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.

IN almoſt all the ſtates of Europe, the will of the prince holds the place of law; but it is the ſingular happineſs of this country, that the legiſlative power is veſted ſolely in the parliament; the conſtituent parts of which are the king, the houſe of lords, and the houſe of commons.

The king of Great Britain, though only one branch of the legiſlature, is nevertheleſs one of the greateſt monarchs reigning over a free people. His perſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treaſon ſo much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himſelf, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the perſons of his miniſters, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits or the boundaries preſcribed by the conſtitution; he can make no new laws, nor raiſe any new taxes, nor act in oppoſition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace; ſend and receive ambaſſadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the ſuppreſſion of rebellions; grant commiſſions to his officers both by ſea and land, or revoke them at pleaſure; diſpoſe of all magazines, caſtles, &c. ſummon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve, it at pleaſure; refuſe his aſſent to any bill, though it hath paſſed both houſes; which, conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has no more force than if it had never been moved; but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very ſeldom ventured to exerciſe. He poſſeſſes the right of chuſing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of ſtate, of the houſehold and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. With all theſe prerogatives, as extenſive and numerous as ever were claimed by the moſt abſolute monarch, yet, ſince only a third branch of the legiſlative authority exiſts in the royal perſon, it is impoſſible for him to exerciſe an arbitrary will. He has indeed the prerogative of commanding armies, and equipping fleets—but without the concurrence of his parliament he cannot maintain them. He can beſtow places and employments—but without his parliament he cannot pay the ſalaries attendant on them. He can declare war—but without his parliament it is impoſſible for him to carry it on. In a word, the royal prerogative, deſtitute of the power of impoſing taxes, and with only a ſpecific revenue reſulting from the people, is like a vaſt body, which cannot of itſelf accompliſh its motions; or, it is like a ſhip completely equipped, but from which the parliament can at pleaſure draw off the water, and leave it aground—and alſo ſet it afloat again by granting the ſupplies.

The parliament is aſſembled by the king's writs, and its ſittings muſt not be intermitted above three years.—When the three branches are convened, they form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid to be *caput, principium, et finis.* For upon their coming together the king meets them, either in perſon, or by repreſentation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alſo has alone the power of proroguing and diſſolving them.

It is highly neceſſary, for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution, that the executive power ſhould be a branch, though not the whole, of the legiſlature. The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſapprove of the alterations ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without

without its own conſent: ſince the law muſt perpetually ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter it. And here indeed conſiſts the true excellence of the Engliſh government, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people; by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has reſolved: while the king is a check upon both, which preſerves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and twenty-four biſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm, the biſhops not being in ſtrictneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all ancient peers; ſome by creation, as do all the new-made ones: others, ſince the union with Scotland, by election, which is the caſe of the ſixteen peers who repreſent the body of the Scots nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increaſed at will by the power of the crown. A body of nobility is more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed and compound conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both the crown and the people; by forming a barrier to withſtand the encroachments of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of dignity, which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it riſes. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to ſupport the throne; and, if that falls, they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the laſt century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they alſo voted the houſe of lords to be uſeleſs and dangerous.

The commons conſiſt of all ſuch men, of any property in the kingdom, as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every one of which has a voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentatives. In a free ſtate, every man, who is ſuppoſed a free agent, ought to be, in ſome meaſure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at leaſt of the legiſlative power ſhould reſide in the whole body of the people. In ſo large a ſtate as ours, it is very wiſely contrived that the people ſhould do that by their repreſentatives which it is impracticable to perform in perſon; repreſentatives choſen by a number of minute and ſeparate diſtricts wherein all the votes are, or eaſily may be, diſtinguiſhed. The counties are therefore repreſented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands; the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citizens and burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading intereſt, of the nation. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513, and of Scots 45; in all 558. And every member, though choſen by one particular diſtrict, when elected and returned, ſerves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not merely to ſerve his conſtituents, but alſo the common-wealth, and to adviſe his majeſty, as appears from the writ of ſummons.

Theſe are the conſtituent parts of a parliament, of which each is ſo neceſſary, that the conſent of all three is required to make any new law that ſhould bind the ſubject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no ſtatute; and to it no regard is due.

Such is the parliament of Great Britain; the ſource and guardian of our liberties and properties, the ſtrong cement which binds the foundation and ſuperſtructure of our government, and the wiſely-concerted balance, maintaining an equal poiſe, that no one of the three eſtates overpower or diſtreſs either of the other.

Long may ſuch a government, freed from innovation and diſſonance, continue to bleſs the realms of the Britiſh empire; to ſoothe into peace the jarring animoſities of contending nations; and diſſeminate the laws of freedom to every arbitrary power on earth!

STATE

STATE OF THE ARMY IN GREAT BRITAIN.

IN this land of liberty, it is extremely dangerous to make a diſtinct order of the profeſſion of arms. In abſolute monarchies, this is neceſſary for the ſafety of the prince; and ariſes from the main principle of their conſtitution, which is that of governing by fear: but, in free ſtates, the profeſſion of a ſoldier, taken ſingly and merely as a profeſſion, is juſtly an object of jealouſy. In theſe no man ſhould take up arms but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen, and an advocate for freedom, that he makes himſelf for a while a ſoldier. The laws, therefore, and conſtitution of theſe kingdoms know no ſuch ſtate as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldier, bred up to no other profeſſion than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had ſo much as a guard about their perſons.

In the time of the Anglo-Saxons, as appears from Edward the Confeſſor's laws, the military force of England was in the hands of the dukes or heretochs, who were conſtituted through every province and county in the kingdom; being taken out of the principal nobility, and ſuch as were moſt remarkable for being *ſapientes, fideles, et animoſi*. Their duty was to lead and regulate the Engliſh armies, with a very unlimited power; *prout eis viſum fuerit, ad honorem corona et utilitatem regni*. And becauſe of this great power they were elected by the people in their full aſſembly, or folkmote, in the ſame manner as ſheriffs were elected: following ſtill that old fundamental maxim of the Saxon conſtitution, that where any officer was entruſted with ſuch power, as, if abuſed, might tend to the oppreſſion of the people, that power was delegated to him by the vote of the people themſelves. So too, among the ancient Germans, the anceſtors of our Saxon forefathers, they had their dukes, as well as kings, with an independent power over the military, as the kings had over the civil ſtate. The dukes were elective, the kings hereditary; for ſo only can be conſiſtently underſtood that paſſage of Tacitus, *Reges ex nobilitate, duces ex virtute ſumunt*. In conſtituting their kings, the family or blood-royal was regarded; in chuſing their dukes or leaders, warlike merit: juſt as Cæſar relates of their anceſtors in his time, that whenever they went to war, by way either of attack or defence, they elected leaders to command them. This large ſhare of power, thus conferred by the people, though intended to preſerve the liberty of the ſubject, was perhaps unreaſonably detrimental to the prerogative of the crown: and accordingly we find a very ill uſe made of it by Edric duke of Mercia, in the reign of King Edmond Ironſide; who, by his office of duke or heretoch, was intitled to a large command in the king's army, and by his repeated treacheries at laſt transferred the crown to Canute the Dane.

It ſeems univerſally agreed by all hiſtorians, that King Alfred firſt ſettled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent diſcipline made all the ſubjects of his dominions ſoldiers: but we are unfortunately left in the dark as to the particulars of this his ſo celebrated regulation; though, from what was laſt obſerved, the dukes ſeem to have been left in poſſeſſion of too large and independent a power: which enabled Duke Harold, on the death of Edward the Confeſſor, though a ſtranger to the royal blood, to mount for a ſhort ſpace the throne of this kingdom, in prejudice of Edgar Atheling the rightful heir.

Upon the Norman conqueſt, the ancient feudal law was converted into a ſyſtem of rigour, the whole of which was founded on a military plan. In conſequence thereof, all the lands in the kingdom were divided into what were called knight's fees, in number above 60,000; and for every knight's fee a knight or ſoldier, *miles*, was bound to attend the

king in his wars, for forty days in a year; in which ſpace of time, before war was reduced to a ſcience, the campaign was generally finiſhed, and a kingdom either conquered or victorious. By this means the king had, without any expence, an army of 60,000 men always ready at his command. And accordingly we find one, among the laws of William the Conqueror, which in the king's name commands and firmly enjoins the perſonal attendance of all knights and others; *quod habeant et teneant ſe ſemper in armis et equis, ut decet et oportet: et quod ſemper ſint prompti et parati ad ſervitium ſuum integrum nobis explendum et peragendum, cum opus adfuerit, ſecundum quod debent de feodis et tenementis ſuis de jure nobis facere.* This perſonal ſervice in proceſs of time degenerated into pecuniary commutations or aids; and at laſt the military part of the feudal ſyſtem was aboliſhed at the Reſtoration, by ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 24.

In the mean time, we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence in caſe of domeſtic inſurrections, or the proſpect of foreign invaſions. Beſides thoſe who by their military tenures were bound to perform forty days ſervice in the field, firſt the aſſize of arms, enacted 27 Hen. II. and afterwards the ſtatute of Wincheſter, under Edward I. obliged every man, according to his eſtate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of ſuch arms as were then in uſe, in order to keep the peace; and conſtables were appointed in all hundreds by the latter ſtatute, to ſee that ſuch arms were provided. Theſe weapons were changed by the ſtatute 4 & 5 Ph. & M. c. 2. into others of more modern ſervice; but both this and the former proviſions were repealed in the reign of James I. While theſe continued in force, it was uſual from time to time for our princes to iſſue commiſſions of array, and ſend into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muſter and array (or ſet in military order) the inhabitants of every diſtrict, and the form of the commiſſion of array was ſettled in parliament in the 5 Hen. IV. But at the ſame time it was provided, that no man ſhould be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate, nor out of his ſhire but in caſes of urgent neceſſity; nor ſhould provide ſoldiers unleſs by conſent of parliament. About the reign of King Henry VIII. and his children, lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as ſtanding repreſentatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the ſtatute 4 & 5 Ph. & M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in uſe; for Camden ſpeaks of them in the time of Queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magiſtrates, conſtituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

In this ſtate things continued till the repeal of the ſtatutes of armour in the reign of King James I. after which, when King Charles I. had, during his northern expeditions, iſſued commiſſions of lieutenancy, and exerted ſome military powers which, having been long exerciſed, were thought to belong to the crown, it became a queſtion in the long-parliament, how far the power of the militia did inherently reſide in the king; being now unſupported by any ſtatute, and founded only upon immemorial uſage. This queſtion, long agitated with great heat and reſentment on both ſides, became at length the immediate cauſe of the fatal rupture between the king and his parliament: the two houſes not only denying this prerogative of the crown, the legality of which claim perhaps might be ſomewhat doubtful; but alſo ſeizing into their hands the entire power of the militia, the illegality of which ſtep could never be in any doubt at all.

Soon after the reſtoration of King Charles II. when the military tenures were aboliſhed, it was thought proper to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recogniſe the ſole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination: and the order in which the militia now ſtands by law is principally built upon the ſtatutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two laſt of them are apparently repealed; but many of their proviſions are re-enacted, with the addition of

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ſome new regulations, by the preſent militia laws; the general ſcheme of which is to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, choſen by lot for five years, and officered by the lord-lieutenant, the deputy-lieutenants, and other principal landholders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unleſs in time of war, or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe compellable to march out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times: and their diſcipline in general is liberal and eaſy; but, when drawn out into actual ſervice, they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law, as neceſſary to keep them in order. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm againſt foreign or domeſtic violence; and which the ſtatutes declare is eſſentially neceſſary to the ſafety and proſperity of the kingdom.

When the nation was engaged in war, more veteran troops and more regular diſcipline were eſteemed to be neceſſary, than could be expected from a mere militia; and therefore at ſuch times more rigorous methods were put in uſe for the raiſing of armies and the due regulation and diſcipline of the ſoldiery: which are to be looked upon only as temporary excreſcences bred out of the diſtemper of the ſtate, and not as any part of the permanent and perpetual laws of the kingdom. For martial law, which is built upon no ſettled principles, but is entirely arbitrary in its deciſions, is, as Sir Matthew Hale obſerves, in truth and reality, no law, but ſomething indulged rather than allowed as a law. The neceſſity of order and diſcipline in an army is the only thing which can give it countenance; and therefore it ought not to be permitted in time of peace, when the king's courts are open for all perſons to receive juſtice according to the laws of the land. Wherefore, Thomas earl of Lancaſter being convicted at Pontefract, 15 Edw. II. by martial law, his attainder was reverſed 1 Edw. III. becauſe it was done in time of peace. And it is laid down, that if a lieutenant, or other, tha hath commiſſion of martial authority, doth in time of peace hang or otherwiſe execute any man by colour of martial law, this is murder; for it is againſt magna charta. And the petition of right enacts, that no ſoldier ſhall be quartered on the ſubject without his own conſent; and that no commiſſion ſhall iſſue to proceed within this land according to martial law. And whereas, after the Reſtoration, King Charles II. kept up about 5000 regular troops, by his own authority, for guards and garriſons; which King James II. by degrees increaſed to no leſs than 30,000, all paid from his own civil liſt; it was made one of the articles of the bill of rights, that the raiſing or keeping a ſtanding army within the kingdom in time of peace, unleſs it be with conſent of parliament, is againſt law.

But, as the faſhion of keeping ſtanding armies (which was firſt introduced by Charles VII. in France, 1445) has of late years univerſally prevailed over Europe, (though ſome of its potentates, being unable themſelves to maintain them, are obliged to have recourſe to richer powers, and receive ſubſidiary penſions for that purpoſe,) it has alſo for many years paſt been annually judged neceſſary by our legiſlature, for the ſafety of the kingdom, the defence of the poſſeſſions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain even in time of peace a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are however *ipſo facto* diſbanded at the expiration of every year, unleſs continued by parliament. And it was enacted by ſtatute 10 W. III. c. 1. that not more than 12,000 regular forces ſhould be kept on foot in Ireland, though paid at the charge of that kingdom: which permiſſion is extended by ſtat. 8 Geo. III. c. 13. to 16,235 men in time of peace.

To prevent the executive power from being able to oppreſs, ſays Baron Monteſquieu, it is requiſite that the armies with which it is entruſted ſhould conſiſt of the people, and have the ſame ſpirit with the people; as was the caſe at Rome, till Marius

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new-modelled the legions by enliſting the rabble of Italy, and laid the foundation of all the military tyranny that enſued. Nothing then, according to theſe principles, ought to be more guarded againſt in a free ſtate, than making the military power, when ſuch a one is neceſſary to be kept on foot, a body too diſtinct from the people. Like ours, therefore, it ſhould wholly be compoſed of natural ſubjects; it ought only to be enliſted for a ſhort and limited time; the ſoldiers alſo ſhould live intermixed with the people; no ſeparate camp, no barracks, no inland fortreſſes, ſhould be allowed. And perhaps it might be ſtill better, if, by diſmiſſing a ſtated number, and enliſting others at every renewal of their term, a circulation could be kept up between the army and the people, and the citizen and the ſoldier be more intimately connected together.

To keep this body of troops in order, an annual act of parliament likewiſe paſſes, "to puniſh mutiny and deſertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be diſperſed among the ſeveral inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and eſtabliſhes a law-martial for their government. By this, among other things, it is enacted, that if any officer or ſoldier ſhall excite or join any mutiny, or, knowing of it, ſhall not give notice to the commanding officer, or ſhall deſert, or enliſt in any other regiment, or ſleep upon his poſt, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correſpondence with a rebel or enemy, or ſtrike or uſe violence to his ſuperior officer, or ſhall diſobey his lawful commands; ſuch offender ſhall ſuffer ſuch puniſhment as a court-martial ſhall inflict, though it extend to death itſelf.

However expedient the moſt ſtrict regulations may be in time of actual war, yet in times of profound peace a little relaxation of military rigour would not, one ſhould hope, be productive of much inconvenience. And, upon this principle, though by our ſtanding laws (ſtill remaining in force, though not attended to) deſertion in time of war is made felony without benefit of clergy, and the offence is triable by a jury, and before the judges of the common law; yet, by our militia laws before-mentioned, a much lighter puniſhment is inflicted for deſertion in time of peace. So, by the Roman law alſo, deſertion in time of war was puniſhed with death, but more mildly in time of tranquillity. But our mutiny-act makes no ſuch diſtinction: for any of the faults above-mentioned are, equally at all times, puniſhable with death itſelf, if a court-martial ſhall think proper. This diſcretionary power of the court-martial is indeed to be guided by the directions of the crown; which, with regard to military offences, has almoſt an abſolute legiſlative power: "His majeſty (ſays the act) may form articles of war, and conſtitute courts-martial, with power to try any crime by ſuch articles, and inflict ſuch penalties as the articles direct." A vaſt and moſt important truſt! an unlimited power to create crimes, and annex to them any puniſhments not extending to life or limb! Theſe are indeed forbidden to be inflicted, except for crimes declared to be ſo puniſhable by this act; which crimes we have juſt enumerated, and among which, we may obſerve, that any diſobedience to lawful commands is one. Perhaps in ſome future reviſion of this act, which is in many reſpects haſtily penned, it may be thought worthy the wiſdom of parliament to aſcertain the limits of military ſubjection, and to enact expreſs articles of war for the government of the army, as is done for the government of the navy; eſpecially as, by our preſent conſtitution, the nobility and gentry of the kingdom, who ſerve their country as militia-officers, are annually ſubjected to the ſame arbitrary rule during their time of exerciſe.

One of the greateſt advantages of our law is, that not only the crimes themſelves which it puniſhes, but alſo the penalties which it inflicts, are aſcertained and notorious; nothing is left to arbitrary diſcretion; the king by his judges diſpenſes what the law has previouſly ordained, but is not himſelf the legiſlator. How much, therefore,

therefore, is it to be regretted, that a ſet of men, whoſe bravery has ſo often preſerved the liberties of their country, ſhould be reduced to a ſtate of ſervitude in the midſt of a nation of freemen; for Sir Edward Coke and Judge Blackſtone inform us, that it is one of the genuine marks of ſervitude, to have the law, which is our rule of action, either concealed or precarious; *Miſera eſt ſervitus, ubi jus eſt vagum aut incognitum.* Nor is this ſtate of ſervitude quite conſiſtent with the maxims of ſound policy obſerved by other free nations. For the greater the general liberty is which any ſtate enjoys, the more cautious has it uſually been in introducing ſlavery in any particular order or profeſſion. Theſe men, as Baron Monteſquieu obſerves, ſeeing the liberty which others poſſeſs, and which they themſelves are excluded from, are apt (like eunuchs in the eaſtern ſeraglios) to live in a ſtate of perpetual envy and hatred towards the reſt of the community, and indulge a malignant pleaſure in contributing to deſtroy thoſe privileges to which they can never be admitted. Hence have many free ſtates, by departing from this rule, been endangered by the revolt of their ſlaves; while, in abſolute and deſpotic governments, where no real liberty exiſts, and conſequently no invidious compariſons can be formed, ſuch incidents are extremely rare. Two precautions are therefore adviſed to be obſerved in all prudent and free governments: 1. To prevent the introduction of ſlavery at all; or, 2. If it be already introduced, not to entruſt thoſe ſlaves with arms, who will then find themſelves an overmatch for the freemen. Much leſs ought the ſoldiery to be an exception to the people in general, and the only ſtate of ſervitude in the nation.

But as ſoldiers, by this annual act, are thus put in a worſe condition than any other ſubjects; ſo, by the humanity of our ſtanding laws, they are in ſome caſes put in a much better. By ſtatute 43 Eliz. c. 3. a weekly allowance is to be raiſed in every county for the relief of ſoldiers that are ſick, hurt, and maimed: not forgetting the royal hoſpital at Chelſea for ſuch as are worn out in their duty. Officers and ſoldiers, that have been in the king's ſervice, are by ſeveral ſtatutes, enacted at the cloſe of ſeveral wars, at liberty to uſe any trade or occupation they are fit for, in any town in the kingdom (except the two univerſities), notwithſtanding any ſtatute, cuſtom, or charter, to the contrary. And ſoldiers in actual military ſervice may make nuncupative wills, and diſpoſe of their goods, wages, and other perſonal chattels, without thoſe forms, ſolemnities, and expences, which the law requires in other caſes. Our law does not indeed extend this privilege ſo far as the civil law, which carried it to an extreme that borders upon the ridiculous: for if a ſoldier, in the hour of death, wrote any thing in bloody letters on his ſhield, or in the duſt of the field with his ſword, it was a very good military teſtament.

HISTORY OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

[*Continued from page* 239.]

THE burying-places in China are always ſituated at a ſmall diſtance from a city or town, and generally upon ſome eminence, having pines or cypreſſes uſually planted round them. The form of the tombs is various, according to the different provinces, and the ſituation of thoſe for whom they are intended. The coffins of the poor are placed under a ſhade covered with thatch, or incloſed in a ſmall building of brick in the form of a tomb. The tombs of the rich are ſhaped like a horſe-ſhoe, well whitened, and finiſhed with great taſte; but thoſe of the mandarins and people of quality are much more ſumptuous and elegant. A vault is firſt conſtructed, in which the coffin is ſhut up; over this vault is raiſed a pyramid of earth well beaten together, about 12 feet in height and 10 in diameter. There are alſo a great number of figures, repreſenting officers, eunuchs, ſoldiers,

ſoldiers, ſaddled horſes, camels, lions, tortoiſes, &c. &c. ranged round the tombs in different rows; which F. du Halde aſſures us, produce a very ſtriking effect.

When a Chineſe dies in a province in which he was not born, his children have a right, nay it is their indiſpenſable duty, to tranſport the body to the burying-place of their anceſtors. A ſon, who ſhould be wanting in this reſpect, would be diſgraced, and his name never placed in the hall of his anceſtors. This is a vaſt building, conſidered as common to all the branches of the ſame family, and to which they all repair at a certain ſeaſon of the year. Sometimes they amount to ſeven or eight thouſand perſons, whoſe fortune, dignity, and rank in ſociety, are all very different; but there no diſtinction of rank is known; age only gives precedence, and the oldeſt always takes place of all the reſt, though he ſhould be the pooreſt in the company. The diſtinguiſhing ornament of this hall is a long table ſet againſt the wall, upon which is generally ſeen the image of one of their anceſtors, who has filled ſome office of diſtinction in the empire with honour to himſelf, or who has been rendered illuſtrious by his talents and abilities. Sometimes it only contains the names of men, women, and children, belonging to the family, inſcribed upon tablets, together with their age, the day of their death, and the dignities they enjoyed at that time. Theſe tablets are ranged in two rows upon ſteps, and are only about a foot high each. In the ſpring, and ſometimes in the autumn, the relations of the deceaſed repair to this hall, where the only privilege enjoyed by the richeſt is that of preparing an entertainment, and treating the whole family at their own expence; but they never allow themſelves to taſte a bit of any thing until an offering has been firſt made to their anceſtors. This does not, however, excuſe them from viſiting the real tomb of their anceſtors once or twice a year, generally in the month of April. At this time they pluck the weeds and buſhes from around the tomb, renew their expreſſions of grief, and conclude by placing upon it wine and proviſions, which ſerve to dine their aſſiſtants.

The funeral ceremonies are conſidered by the Chineſe as the moſt important of any. A few moments after a perſon has expired, he is dreſſed out in his richeſt attire, and adorned with every badge of his dignity; after which he is placed in the coffin. The preparation of a coffin, in which his body may be incloſed after death, is one of the chief objects of attention to a Chineſe during his life, and great expence is often thrown away upon it; inſomuch that the poor will give all they are worth, and the rich expend a thouſand crowns, nay, a ſon will ſell himſelf for a ſlave, in order to purchaſe a coffin for his father. Sometimes the coffin, though purchaſed with all this labour and expence, will remain twenty years uſeleſs in the family, and is conſidered as the moſt valuable piece of furniture in his poſſeſſion.

The manner of interment is as follows: firſt they ſprinkle ſome lime in the bottom of the coffin; then they lay the body in it, taking care to place the head on a pillow, and to add a great deal of cotton, that it may remain more ſteady, and be prevented from ſhaking. In this manner the body remains expoſed ſeven days; but the time may be reduced to three, if any weighty reaſon makes it neceſſary; and, during this interval, all the relations and friends, who are purpoſely invited, come and pay their reſpects to the deceaſed, the neareſt relations even remaining in the houſe. The coffin is expoſed in the hall of ceremony, which is then hung with white, but ſome pieces of black or violet-coloured ſilk are here and there interſperſed, as well as ſome other ornaments of mourning. Before the coffin is placed a table, on which ſtands the image of the deceaſed, or a carved ornament inſcribed with his name; and theſe are always accompanied with flowers, perfumes, and lighted wax-candles.

In the mean time thoſe who enter the hall are accuſtomed to ſalute the deceaſed as if he were ſtill in life. They proſtrate themſelves before the table, and knock their foreheads ſe-

eral times againſt the earth; after which they place on the table ſome perfumes and wax-candles provided for the purpoſe. The ſalutation which they have made to the deceaſed is returned by the eldeſt ſon accompanied by his brothers. The latter come forth from behind a curtain, which hangs on one ſide of the coffin, creeping along the ground until they reach the ſpot where thoſe ſtand whom they are going to ſalute; after which, without riſing up, they return to the place from whence they came. The women are alſo concealed behind the ſame curtain, from whence they every now and then ſend forth diſmal cries.

After a number of ceremonies and invitations, the funeral proceſſion at laſt commences. A troop of men march in a file, carrying different figures made of paſteboard, and repreſenting ſlaves, lions, tigers, horſes, &c. Others follow, marching in two files; ſome of which carry ſtandards, ſome flags or cenſers filled with perfumes; while melancholy and plaintive airs are played by others on different muſical inſtruments. Theſe muſicians immediately precede the coffin, which is covered with a canopy, in form of a dome, of violet-coloured ſilk; its four corners are ornamented with tufts of white ſilk very neatly embroidered, and covered at the top with net-work. The coffin is placed on the bottom of this machine, and is carried by 64 men. The eldeſt ſon, clothed in a frock of canvas, having his body bent and leaning on a ſtaff, follows near the coffin; and behind him his brothers and nephews, but none of them clothed in canvas. Then come the relations and friends, all clad in mourning, and followed by a great number of chairs covered with white ſtuff which contain the wives and female ſlaves of the deceaſed. Theſe make great ſhow of ſorrow by their doleful cries; but M. Groſier obſerves, that, in ſpite of all they can do, the lamentations of the Chineſe are ſo methodical, that an European would be apt to conclude that they were the effects of art rather than the natural effuſions of a mind agitated and oppreſſed with grief. When they arrive at the burying place, the coffin is depoſited in a tomb appropriated for it, not far from which there are tables arranged in different halls, and on which the aſſiſtants are entertained with great ſplendour. The entertainment is ſometimes followed by freſh marks of homage to the corpſe; but theſe are often changed into thanks to the eldeſt ſon; who, however, anſwers only by ſigns. But, if the deceaſed was a grandee of the empire, a certain number of his relations never leave the tomb for a month or two. There they reſide in apartments purpoſely provided for them, and every day renew their marks of grief in company with the children of the deceaſed. The magnificence of theſe funeral ceremonies is proportioned to the wealth or dignity of the deceaſed. That of one of the brothers of the emperor was attended by 16,000 people, each of whom had a particular office aſſigned him relating to the ceremony.

The Chineſe uſe white as the colour proper for mourning; and, though a ſon cannot wear this while his father and mother are alive, he can uſe no other for three years after their death; and ever afterwards his clothes muſt be of one colour. Mourning continues in China for three years; and during all this time they are obliged to abſtain from the uſe of fleſh and wine; nor can they aſſiſt at any entertainment of ceremony, or attend any public aſſembly. At firſt they are not even permitted to go abroad; and, when they do ſo, they are carried in a chair covered with a white cloth. Sometimes the filial piety of the Chineſe is carried to ſuch a length, that they preſerve the bodies of their deceaſed fathers in their houſes for three or four years; and thoſe who do ſo impoſe alſo upon themſelves a great number of other duties, uſing no other ſeat during the day but a ſtool covered with white ſerge, and no other bed but a plain mat made of reeds, which is placed near the coffin.

According to M. Groſier, the only diverſions of the Chineſe are thoſe of hunting and fiſhing, dancing not being practiſed,

practiſed, and gaming forbidden by law. Fiſhing is conſidered by them rather as an object of commerce and induſtry than amuſement. They catch fiſh by various methods; uſing nets in their great fiſheries, but lines in the private. In ſome provinces alſo they uſe a certain kind of bird whoſe plumage greatly reſembles that of a raven, but with a much longer bill very ſharp and hooked. This method of fiſhing is practiſed in boats, of which great numbers may be ſeen on the river about ſun-riſing, with the fiſhing-birds perched on their prows. Theſe birds are taught to catch fiſh almoſt in the ſame manner that dogs purſue game. The fiſhermen, after making ſeveral turns with their boats, beat the water ſtrongly with one of their oars. This ſerves as a ſignal to the birds, who inſtantly plunge into the water, and, diving, ſwallow as many ſmall fiſh as they can, repairing immediately afterwards to the boat, and carrying a large one by the middle in their bill. The ſmall ones are prevented from paſſing into the ſtomach by a ring placed on purpoſe to confine its gullet: and thus the fiſhermen, by ſtroking its neck with the head downwards, makes the bird diſgorge all thoſe ſmall fiſh it has ſwallowed. When they have done fiſhing, the rings are taken off, and the birds allowed to feed. When the fiſh happens to be too large for a ſingle bird, the others have ſagacity enough to aſſiſt it; one taking it by the tail, another by the head, &c. and thus they tranſport it to their maſter.

Another method of fiſhing, practiſed only in China, is as follows: They nail a board about two feet in breadth, which is covered with a white ſhining kind of varniſh, upon the edges of a long narrow boat, from one end to the other. This board is placed in ſuch a manner as to ſlope almoſt imperceptibly to the water. It is uſed only in the night-time, and is always turned towards the moon, that the reflection of light from that luminary may increaſe the ſplendour of the varniſh. The fiſh, in ſporting, often miſtake this varniſhed board for water; and, endeavouring to throw themſelves into it, fall into the boat.

The ſoldiers have a particular method of fiſhing with a bow and an arrow; the latter of which is fixed to the bow by a ſtring, both to prevent it from being loſt, and to enable them to draw out the fiſh which the arrow has pierced: others make uſe of tridents to catch large fiſh which are ſometimes found in the mud.

Beſides theſe diverſions, the Chineſe have ſome ſtrolling players, but no regular theatres; they have likewiſe muſicians and ſingers, but no operas, or indeed any public ſpectacle worthy of notice.

The language of the Chineſe is not only very ancient, but, in M. Groſier's opinion, is ſtill ſpoken as in the moſt early ages without any variation. His reaſons for this opinion are, 1. We do not perceive in hiſtory, nor even in the moſt fabulous traditions, a ſingle fact leading to occaſion any doubt of the language ſpoken by the ancient Chineſe being different from that uſed at preſent. 2. China has never changed its inhabitants; and, if revolutions have occaſioned any mixture of new languages, it appears that the ancient language has always been predominant and that the new ſettlers have learned and ſpoken it, as the Marchew Tartars after their conqueſt. 3. The moſt intelligent and diſcerning of the literati agree, that the firſt chapters of the Chou-king were written under the reign of Yao 2300 years before Chriſt; and in theſe, ſeveral ſpeeches of the firſt emperors are related word for word; and it is not probable that the language of theſe princes was different from that of the hiſtorian. 4. A compliment paid to Yao by one of his ſubjects, with the anſwer of that prince, are ſtill preſerved, as well as two ſongs compoſed under the ſame reign. 5. The moſt ancient inſcriptions in China are all in the language ſpoken throughout the empire at this day. 7. The Chineſe have borrowed nothing from other nations; and their attachment to their own cuſtoms, and to antiquity, muſt undoubtedly be very unfavourable to any innovation. The language ſpoken by the vulgar, indeed, muſt have undergone ſome changes; but theſe may be accounted trivial, affecting only the pronunciation; which indeed appears

pears to be varied in ſome few inſtances. It is certain, however, that the Chineſe players act theatrical pieces which were written 1000 years ago, and that theſe are ſtill underſtood throughout the empire.

The language of China has no alphabet; all the words which compoſe it conſiſt of one ſyllable only, and are very few in number. Theſe always remain the ſame, and continue monoſyllables even when two are joined together, being united in the ſame manner as the French words *bon* and *jour* are united to form *bon-jour*. Theſe monoſyllables never form but one ſound. When written by an European, they begin with the letters *ch, tch, f, g,* or *j, i, h, l, m, n, g, ng, p, ſ, ts, v, ou*; the final letters being *a, e, i, oi, ou, u, l, n, gn*. The middle of Chineſe words conſiſts of vowels and conſonants producing only one ſound, and pronounced always as monoſyllables. The whole primary words of the language are in number only about 330, though ſome dictionaries make them 484. The ſenſe of theſe words, however, is varied by the ſeveral accents and changes of the voice in pronouncing them almoſt *ad infinitum*. Two principal accents are known in China; the *ping* that is, even, without elevating or depreſſing the voice. This is divided into *tſing*, clear, and *tcho*, obſcure; or rather open and mute. The accent *tſe* is ſubdivided into *tchang*, ſharp, *kiu*, grave, and *jou*, re-entering. The tone is *tchang* when one raiſes the voice at the end of a word, as when the negative *no* is pronounced with great emphaſis and force; it is *kiu* when one depreſſes the voice with an air of timidity. When the accent is *jou*, the voice is drawn back as it were into the throat; and the aſpiration which takes place on certain words beginning with the letters *c, k, p, t*, ſtill adds to theſe varieties.

By theſe differences in pronunciation the ſignification of the words is totally changed: thus the word *tchu* pronounced by lengthening the *u*, and with a clear tone of voice, ſignifies maſter or lord; if it is pronounced in an uniform tone by lengthening the *u*, it ſignifies hog; when pronounced lightly and with rapidity, it ſignifies kitchen; and, when articulated with a ſtrong voice depreſſed towards the end, it ſignifies a pillar.

By the conjunction and modification of theſe different monoſyllables, a Chineſe can expreſs every thing he has occaſion for; and it may be eaſily ſeen what variety muſt reſult from this art of multiplying words. The Chineſe language therefore has words expreſſive of the ſmalleſt variation of circumſtance, and which cannot be expreſſed in the European languages without a circumlocution. Thus, inſtead of the five words, calf, bull, ox, heifer, cow, every time that a cow has a calf ſhe acquires a new name in the language of this empire; and ſtill another when ſhe becomes barren. An ox fed for ſacrifice has a particular name, which is changed when he goes to the altar. In like manner, a whole dictionary might be compoſed of the words that are employed to expreſs the different parts of the emperor's palace, and thoſe that are in a manner conſecrated to it; others being employed when the palaces of princes or mandarins are ſpoken of. Thus the number of their characters are augmented beyond all bounds, ſo that the greater part of their literati ſpend all their lives in ſtudying them.

In the Chineſe there are four different languages: 1. The *Kou-ouen*, or claſſical language. This is not ſpoken at preſent, though it is generally believed to have been the language of the early ages. It is ſo laconic, and the ideas are ſo crowded, that it is very difficult to be underſtood; however, the literati, who can read and underſtand it, are much delighted with it. 2. The *Ouen-tchang* is the language uſed in compoſitions where a noble and elevated ſtyle is requiſite. It is never ſpoken, but certain ſentences and complimentary expreſſions are ſometimes borrowed from it. It approaches near to the laconic brevity and majeſtic ſublimity of the *Kou-ouen*, and is equally proper for every kind of ſubject, excepting only the ambiguities of metaphyſics, and the formal rugged diction uſed in treating of the abſtract ſciences.

3. The *Kouan-ha* is the language of the court, of people in office, and of the literati. It admits of ſynonymous expreſſions to moderate the brevity of monoſyllables: of pronouns, and relatives; prepoſitions, adverbs, and particles; to ſupply the wants of caſes, moods, tenſes, and numbers, which have place in other languages.

4. *Hiang-tan* is a kind of corrupted language, or provincial dialect, ſpoken by the lower claſſes in China; and of which every province, city, and almoſt every village, has its own. Beſides the ſenſe of the words, which is changed in a great variety of places, they are ſo altered by diverſity of pronunciation as to be almoſt unintelligible.

There are five kinds of writing mentioned by the Chineſe literati; the moſt modern of which is a method of tracing out the characters with a pencil. This is difficult, and requires much experience; at any rate, it disfigures the characters greatly, and is therefore only uſed in the preſcriptions of phyſicians, prefaces to books, and inſcriptions of fancy. The tracing of characters with neatneſs and accuracy, however, as we have already had occaſion to obſerve, is greatly admired in China. They are often preferred to the moſt elegant painting; and ſome will give a moſt exorbitant price for a page of an old book, if it happens to be neatly written. They pay particular attention to well-formed characters even in the moſt common books; and, if any of the leaves happen to fall off, will replace them with the greateſt attention. To apply them to any vile purpoſe, tread them under foot, &c. would be reckoned an unpardonable violation of decency and politeneſs; nay, it often happens, that workmen, ſuch as maſons and joiners, dare not tear a printed leaf of paper fixed to the wall.

Punctuation was not formerly uſed in China, nor are points as yet employed in works of an elevated ſtyle, or ſuch as are to be preſented to the emperor. Poetry is ſeldom any object of attention, though the taſte for it ſeems to be pretty general in China. Their verſification has its rules, and is no leſs difficult than that of other nations. Only the moſt harmonious, energetic, and pictureſque, words, are to be employed, and they muſt always be uſed in the ſame ſenſe in which they were uſed by the ancients. Each verſe can contain only a certain number of words; all of which muſt be ranged according to the rules of quantity, and terminate in rhyme. The number of verſes in a ſtrophe is not determined; but they muſt be uniform, and preſent the ſame diſtribution of rhymes. The ſmall number of poetical expreſſions contained in the Chineſe language has rendered it neceſſary to extend the poetical licence to a great length in this reſpect. The Chineſe poets are allowed to employ a blank verſe in every four. They are acquainted with moſt kinds of poetry in uſe among us. They have ſtanzas, odes, elegies, idylls, eclogues, epigrams, ſatires, and even bouts-rimés. The common people have alſo ballads and ſongs peculiar to themſelves. Some of the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the literati have even thought it of importance enough to turn the moſt celebrated maxims of morality, with the rules of civility, into verſe. Their poetry is ſeldom diſgraced by any kind of obſcenity; and indeed any ſuch thing would be ſeverely puniſhed by government. That ſevere attention with which every thing tending to corrupt the morals is watched in China, prohibits not only poems of this kind, but likewiſe romances of all ſorts. The police, however, permits ſuch novels as have an uſeful tendency, and in which nothing is introduced prejudicial to ſound morality. Every author who writes againſt government is puniſhed with death, as well as all thoſe who have had any hand in the printing or diſtribution of his works.

The art of making paper and printing have been long known among the Chineſe. That kind of paper now in uſe was firſt manufactured about 105 years before the Chriſtian æra. Before that period they uſed cloth, and various kinds of ſilk-ſtuff, inſtead of paper; and to this day they ſtill preſerve a cuſtom of writing the praiſes of

of the dead upon large pieces of ſilk, which are ſuſpended on one ſide of the coffin, and carried in funeral proceſſions; and of ornamenting their apartments with maxims and moral ſentences written in the ſame manner. In ages ſtill more early, they wrote with a kind of ſtyle upon pieces of bamboo, or even upon plates of metal. The firſt paper was invented by a mandarin. He took the bark of trees, hemp, and old pieces of ſilk-ſtuff, boiling them together until they were reduced to a kind of paſte, of which he formed his paper; which by degrees was brought to perfection, and the art of whitening and giving it a luſtre found out. A great number of different ſubſtances are now uſed in this empire for making paper; ſuch as the bamboo reed, the cotton ſhrub, the bark of the plant called *cou-chu*, and of the mulberry-tree; hemp, the ſtraw of wheat and rice, parchment, the cods of the ſilk-worm, and ſeveral other ſubſtances unknown in Europe. In this manufacture the bark of trees and ſhrubs is uſed, and the woody ſubſtance of the bamboo and cotton tree, after it has been macerated and reduced to a thin paſte. Moſt of the Chineſe paper, however, is attended with the diſadvantage of being very ſuſceptible of moiſture, readily attracts the duſt, and worms inſenſibly get into it; to prevent which inconveniences, it is neceſſary to beat the books often, and expoſe them to the ſun. That made of cotton is the prettieſt, and moſt uſed of any. All of them, however, are much ſofter and ſmoother than ours; which is abſoſutely neceſſary for their method of writing with a pencil, in order that it may run with freedom, which it could not do upon ours. It is formed into ſheets of an enormous ſize; ſo that it would be no difficult matter to procure from the manufactories of this empire ſheets of paper thirty or forty feet long.

The Chineſe ink came originally from Corea; and it was not until the year 900 that they hit upon the method of making it to perfection. The beſt is made in Hoei-tcheou, in the province of Kiang-nan; but its compoſition is a ſecret, which the workmen conceal not only from ſtrangers, but from their fellow-citizens. When a Chineſe has occaſion to write, he places upon his table a piece of poliſhed marble, having a cavity at one of its extremities to contain a little water. In this he dips the end of his cake of ink, and rubs it upon the ſmooth part of the marble; and, as he preſſes more or leſs ſtrongly, the liquor acquires a deeper or lighter tinge of black. When he has done writing, the ſtone is carefully waſhed; for it would be diſhonoured by allowing the leaſt ſpot to remain. The pencils uſed in writing are commonly made of the fur of a rabbit.

(To be concluded in our next.)

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

HAPPY AND UNHAPPY MARRIAGES.

MARRIAGE is as ancient as the world itſelf, and eſſential to the continuance of its inhabitants; when, I ſay, that, without marriage, this ſublunary ſcene would ſoon be cloſed, it is unqueſtionably perceived that I take marriage, in its generality, for every union betwixt perſons of a different ſex, whether ſuch union be accompanied with the formalities to which moſt nations annex the eſſence of this tie, or without them; whether it authoriſes polygamy and divorce, or prohibits them. All theſe are only acceſſary circumſtances, not proceeding from nature. This kind mother has only implanted in us an inſtinct, of all the moſt powerful, leading and often violently plunging us into connections, which, through paſſion, we account a ſource of felicity: and who will not admire the wiſdom of this inſtinct, or rather of its Author? Without it, where is the man ſo void of thought, as to grapple with the hazards of marriage; to embark on the moſt tempeſtuous of all ſeas; to expoſe himſelf to diſcord, to want, to the various troubles interwoven with the bringing up of children,

dren, and ſo many other diſguſts and vexations which are apt to intrude even on the moſt happy marriages? Were that fire which courſes through our veins extinguiſhed throughout the whole maſs of mankind, what a ſight! the two ſexes would ſcarcely look at each other; all intercourſe and converſation would, on both ſides, be found inſipid and tireſome; for, in reality, ſet aſide the paſſion of love, and the two ſexes are not like each other; their ideas, their turn of mind, their diſpoſitions, their pleaſures, are quite of a different ſpecies. Accordingly, when the age or the taſte of ſoft connections is over, each ſex is ſeen to herd with its own; and he who was never happier than in the company of women, becauſe his heart tended that way, avoids ſuch occaſions, as a real torture to the mind, without delight or improvement; they are the ſame, but the juvenile paſſions are ſubſided.

In general, however, all reſiſtance is vain; nature is ever ſtrongeſt, and, whilſt it has not been gratified in this article, it ſeldom fails of ſhewing itſelf in ſome laughable or melancholy ſally. They, in my opinion, are happieſt, in whom nature ſpeaks at the ſuitable ſeaſon, in their bloom of life, which the Creator has certainly intended for the enjoyment of thoſe innocent and lawful pleaſures which preſent themſelves to us. Every thing becomes youth; many things are out of character in the decline, and, in advanced age, the height of ridicule. Not a few have been known vehemently to declaim againſt engagements entirely natural; perſons who ſeemed to have ſhook off the dominion of the ſenſes, and to lead their paſſions in chains, yet at length deſert their principles, and, the longer they have withſtood the torrent, the more ardent and precipitate are they for retrieving loſt time. Neither the ſuppoſed delicacy of ſentiment, nor the ſolemn counſels of wiſdom, can make head againſt the impulſe of nature. If this tyrannic miſtreſs but ſpeaks, ſhe is impatient of ſo much as the ſhadow of reſiſtance; we muſt bend or break, that is, purchaſe the victory at the expence of our quiet, and with theſe aſſaults ſhe will be daily harraſſing us.

I am told, that there are perſons who paſs their whole lives in celibacy; but certain I am, that very few are the exceptions to the univerſality of that inſtinct. Prove it I dare not, nor make known their reaſons, or reſources; there are things which only to inſinuate is too much. The world, then, marries; and, to do ſo, the voice of nature muſt be heard above that of reaſon, yet is not intirely to ſtop the mouth of the latter. From its more or leſs influence on this capital ſtep depends the happineſs or unhappineſs of our future lives.

The motives of human actions are ſo various, the combinations ſo very different, that to enumerate them would be counting the drops of the ocean, or the ſands on the ſhore. All then that I can do, not to bewilder myſelf in the labyrinth of the human heart, is to refer to certain general heads the reaſons determining to marriage; and which, according to their weight, afterwards decide the iſſue of this grand enterprize.

I ſhall not make a ſeparate claſs of thoſe whoſe ties are groſs and merely carnal, whom an animal propenſity brings to the altar. However deplorable the fate be to which they infallibly give themſelves up, it is no more than they deſerve. Yet, conſidering how ill-principled the generality are, I muſt pity them. On the ſatiety of appetite ſucceeds diſguſt; this daily increaſes; the hymeneal torch is changed into that of the furies; and a life of horror and deſpair is the puniſhment of this miſerable forgetfulneſs of themſelves. They have acted like beaſts, but are not ſo happy, for, their wants being ſatisfied, they ſeparate; whereas it is only death which can open the gates of that odious priſon, into which he, whom his ſenſes blind and impel in the choice of a companion, heedleſsly throws himſelf.

Let us haſten from ſuch ſhocking objects. Here is another more ſpecious and alluring, I mean that mixed bent called inclination, and from which ariſe many marriages. I call it mixed, the mind and body having both

both a ſhare in it. The mind, if I may be allowed the expreſſion, purifies the too great materiality of the fleſh, and the fleſh fixes what would be too volatile if reſident in the mind alone. The aſpect has ſmitten, the converſation engages, the ſoul is agreeably affected both with what it ſees and hears; this grows into a ſettled, reciprocal, liking. Hence wiſhes of paſſing life together; this wiſh becomes a reſolution, and this reſolution is followed by its effect. It muſt be owned marriages contracted on theſe principles have ſomething plauſible. A certain grandeur of ſentiment ſeems to diſtinguiſh them, and raiſe them above all thoſe formed under other auſpices; but there is a falſe heroiſm, and ſcarcely to be diſtinguiſhed from the real; and every marriage of inclination is not a ſource of happineſs; ſometimes even its conſequences are quite the reverſe: among other reaſons, I perceive two principal: the firſt, that our wants are of many kinds, and in marriage others grow up by the increaſe of families. Wholly to overlook conſequences ſo near and ſo ſtriking is to offend againſt the very rudiments of foreſight. You love one another: I allow that there is all the reaſon in the world for it; but will this procure you food? will it clothe you? will it enable you to bring up and ſettle your children? may you not, perhaps, both be brought to extremities, of which your mutual attachment will only ſharpen the edge? thus the former brilliant appearances become dimmed, and, but too late, ſuperſeded by ſorrow and repentance. The ſecond inconvenience of marriage from inclination is, that we have very often too high an idea of the force and ſolidity of the motive. You believe that nothing but death ſhall ſo much as cool your love and regard for a perſon, who appears to you a model of perfection, and this, in the ſincerity of your heart, you proteſt to her. But in theſe perfections is there not a little of imagination? will your ideas be always the ſame; and will you not one day, perhaps within a ſhort time, be amazed, confounded, laid on the rack, that you ſhould have taken the phantom for the reality? Of theſe revolutions of ideas, which ſhould impreſs a timorous caution on all to weigh, with the moſt mature exactneſs, both ſides of the reſolutions which inclination dictates to them, the inſtances are too frequent.

Marriages, again, are directed by intereſt. This, indeed, is the moſt general motive; no ſooner is a negociation brought on the carpet, than the firſt queſtion is concerning the fortune, whether land or money; if found ſuitable, and eſpecially if a perſon of a large fortune will incumber himſelf with one who has little or nothing, all difficulties are at an end: "It would be," ſay the relations of the inferior party, "the greateſt madneſs in the world to heſitate; ſtrike while the iron is hot, ſuch offers do not grow on every hedge." What are ye about, ye mercenary wretches? are ye ſelling a beaſt of burthen, or, at moſt, do ye deal in ſlaves? he, or ſhe, who is thus ſacrificed, will they, in a ſtrong box, find a catholicon, a preſervative againſt diſguſt, a palliative againſt infirmities, moroſeneſs, age, and ſo many other inconveniencies, which, however willing we might be, cannot be removed by all the treaſures of the univerſe. I know, and I have already owned, that without money there is no living; that riches are the ſource of convenience, of enjoyments, and pleaſure; they alſo command regard and deference; they give a luſtre to our good qualities, and throw a veil over our bad; but, when they are alone, I ſay to the poſſeſſor, "Thy money periſh with thee." No, nothing appears to me more mean and odious than a marriage of intereſt. I could more eaſily forgive the other ſteps which this potent deity, or rather demon, puts us upon; but to aſſociate ourſelves to a perſon whom we can neither love nor eſteem; to ſee, at our ſide, under our eyes, a nauſeous contemptible object; to live in the cloſeſt familiarity with a worthleſs perſon, a human figure, and this only for the ſake of fortune; that we may have it in our power fantaſtically to diſpoſe of ſome handfuls of caſh; is a procedure ſo baſe, that I am at a loſs for terms to expreſs the indignation with which ſuch an idea deſerves to be treated. But neither is it a principle

ciple of happineſs in marriage; for the delights which riches can procure

Fade in the eye, and pall upon the ſenſe.

The only real ſolid laſting pleaſure is wanting, and this want imbitters all the other. No friendſhip, no mutual confidence, no ſympathy, no communication of pleaſures and pains. The ſplendid equipage, coſtly furniture, attendants, precedency, which were the temptations, are execrated; luxury and faſtuouſneſs, with their uſeleſs decorations, only rancle a heart void of the ſentiments for which nature has formed it. But what muſt it be, when, by a juſt viſitation, ſome ſudden reverſe ſweeps away all this pomp and glitter, and leaves us with no other poſſeſſion, than, with the very greateſt of our evils, a companion, who, ſo very far from being of any comfort to us, aggravates our ſorrows? for, after all, ſuch accidents are poſſible, they are even not unfrequent. Riches have wings, merit and virtue alone are the permament goods that alleviate calamity; to him who is poſſeſſed of theſe, no misfortune can be inſupportable. Yes; I had a thouſand times rather ſhare in the middling fortune of an eſteemable perſon, whoſe temper harmonized with mine; I would even, were no medium left, chuſe to live in obſcure poverty with her, rather than enrich myſelf by a marriage void of any other allurement, than the brilliancy of opulence, and falſe gallantry, which are little conducive to real happineſs: and, as one of the ancients ſaid on two matches being propoſed for his daughter, 'I prefer a man without money to money without a man.'

Some marry from reaſon, an equivocal word, the meaning of which ſhould be fixed. Marriages of reaſon uſually ſignify no more, than marriages made up by reaſon of certain conveniencies for ſupporting a family, for putting an end to diviſions, for complying with the wills of parents or ſuperiors. It is certain, that when ſuch motives can be united with thoſe which are eſſential to the happineſs of the conjugal tie; when we can ſatisfy every duty, and reconcile the differences and intereſts of others with ours; theſe are circumſtances to be embraced with thanks to that benign over-ruling power, which has put them into our hands. But if it be left to option, and theſe external reaſons are put in competition with the internal, ariſing from eſteem, liking, harmony of diſpoſition, and every thing which can promiſe us happy days, I only appeal to the common maxim, "We marry for ourſelves, and not for others." Let us leave to princes the ſad privilege of marrying from reaſons of ſtate, of ſharing throne and bed without any ſhare of tenderneſs and confidence: nor is this the only caſe where the height of their rank deprives them of the complacencies interwoven with the connections of the heart, of thoſe ineſtimable effuſions of ſentiment, of greater value than ſceptres and diadems.

Oh, happy they! the happieſt of their kind;
Whom gentler ſtars unite, and in one fate
Their hearts, their fortunes, and their being, blend.
'Tis not the coarſer tie of human laws,
Unnatural, falſe, and foreign to the mind,
That binds their peace, but harmony itſelf,
Attuning all their paſſions into love;
Where friendſhip full exerts her ſofteſt power,
Perfect eſteem, enliven'd by deſire
Ineffable and ſympathy of ſoul;
Thought meeting thought, and will preventing will,
With boundleſs confidence: for nought but love
Can anſwer love, and render bliſs ſecure.

THOMPSON.

Private perſons, on whom fortune has beſtowed leſs brilliant advantages, but, every thing conſidered, more ſolid, it is my advice, that they avail themſelves of them, eſpecially in a caſe ſo deciſive in the happineſs of life as marriage. It is certain, a marriage may be very happy, without preciſely feeling that paſſion which kindles a like flame in two hearts. Life may flow in quietneſs, and even pleaſure, with an eſteemable perſon, who has a regard and liking for you, and all whoſe ſteps are guided by the ſalutary directions of reaſon. Humours, caprices, whims, which are often the grave of the moſt vivid paſſions, being excluded

cluded from ſuch a hymen, what can diſturb its tranquility? This rational calmneſs often improves to real affection, and this increaſes during the whole remainder of life. Therefore, he or ſhe, who are free from all engagements, and can command their hearts, have an opportunity of matching themſelves to advantage, though not under the impulſe of the predominant paſſion of love. Such would act a very indiſcreet part to reject this promiſing opportunity, under the frivolous pretence of feeling nothing beyond eſteem. Here reaſon is to intervene, and demonſtrate the other numerous advantages which abundantly compenſate for that, the abſence of which is held to be a bad prognoſtic. But, on any repugnancy, were it purely machinal; if we feel, beyond doubting, any ſecret averſion of the ſenſes and inclination: theſe are reaſons of ſuch weight as ſhould ſtop us on the brink of the precipice; for a real precipice it is, which opens itſelf under the feet of her who aſſociates herſelf contrary to the ſuggeſtions of nature; and her condition differs little from that of thoſe criminals, who, according to an ancient puniſhment, were bound to a dead corpſe. Superiors, even the moſt reſpectable, they to whom we owe our birth, are ſtrangers to the limits of their authority, when they inſiſt, that ſuch legal obſtacles ſhould bend under it. Having uſually reached the age, when the calmed ſenſes have put the reins of government into the hands of reaſon, very often unreaſonable, they look upon the averſion which is pleaded as chimerical. 'I ſee nothing,' ſay they very gravely, 'I ſee nothing in ſuch an object, that can give you the leaſt diſguſt; very far from it: to me he appears to have a thouſand engaging qualities, with parts and ſedateneſs; and, beſides all this, it is a very advantageous ſettlement: then let us have no more pauſing, and ſhew a ſenſe of your duty by ready obedience.' But might not they, to whom this imperious ſpeech is directed, anſwer, "Do you ſee with my eyes, do you feel with my heart; and, when my wretched fate is become irrevocable, will you do all that in you lies to comfort me in my ſorrows? ſhall I find, in the warmth of your affection, any equivalent for the miſeries occaſioned by my obedience to your commands?" Let fathers and mothers be here informed of the juſt limits of their power: it is great; it emanes from the Deity itſelf; it repreſents him on earth. But what uſe does the Deity make of his power; to what ends is the whole exerciſe of it directed? to the happineſs of his creatures: he has brought them into being only to make them happy. Therefore, this ſupreme model it behoves parents to follow; they may, they ſhould, interpoſe againſt the misfortunes which inconſiderate youth draws on itſelf by premature engagements, the wretched conſequences of which are manifeſt; and wiſely have the laws impowered them to prevent, to invalidate, to annul, every ſtep taken of this nature, without their participation. But there is no law which has or can inveſt them with the barbarous right of forcing the heart and natural freedom, and dragging to the altar a victim, whoſe reſiſtance ſhews it to be an involuntary ſacrifice. Inceſſant remorſes, muſt, like vultures, prey on thoſe who have practiſed ſuch tyranny, and who ſee their children languiſhing in the horror inſeparable from a diſcordant union. Thus, let not the mind be deluded by the ſpecious name of a marriage of reaſon; we have now ſeen, that, in many caſes, none are more unreaſonable.

What then is the marriage, the principles of which lead to real happineſs? They are, in my opinion, the following:—A marriage, in order to its happineſs, muſt be preceded by knowledge, eſteem, and love; it ſhould be ſuitable to the ſeveral received fitneſſes of age, condition, and religion: laſtly, it ſhould be accompanied with creditable means for living according to our ſtation in the world, and for bringing up a family, if ſuch ſhould be the conſequence. But let us be more explicit is this definition.

Knowledge of each other is an eſſential preamble to union; and this not a ſuperficial knowledge, but

ariſing from ſtudy and obſervance carried as far as the human heart is ſuſceptible. Is there any ſuch thing in thoſe whom large tracts of land ſeparate, and who, without knowing ſcarcely any thing of each other, hazardouſly enter into a perpetual union? a very prepoſterous method of proceeding. How! we ſhall ſhew care and deliberation in any little purchaſe; a toy, which, if it diſpleaſes us, may be thrown aſide, we turn every way, and examine it on all ſides; yet precipitately engage ourſelves to an object which death alone is to remove from our ſight. No, no; the whole application of a ſenſible perſon is ſcarcely ſufficient for probable conjectures on this intereſting point; and an examination of this kind can ſcarcely be carried too far.

If the knowledge, reſulting from this examination does not lead to eſteem, ſtop ſhort; and let every ſeducement of the heart, in favour of an object below eſteem, be looked on as a dangerous poiſon. Let not a ſplendid appearance, perſonal graces, and elegancy of ſpeech, nor intereſt, counterbalance the want of eſteem. What delight can we promiſe ourſelves with a perſon of ſordid ſentiments, or who is a ſlave to ſome capital defect or infamous vice; the more ſympathy, the more favourable diſpoſitions, you otherwiſe find in yourſelf for a perſon of ſuch a caſt, the more you are to avoid him, leſt unhappily your reaſon and your mind become the dupes of your heart.

Attention to fitneſſes is a material article. Motley marriages, as they are called, ſeldom anſwer: it is not natural that, between two perſons in whoſe age there is a great diſparity, abſtractedly from the murmurings of the ſenſes, there ſhould be an affectionate liking; that they ſhould mutually indulge thoſe warm effuſions of love which are the moſt delicate part of matrimonial felicity. Two perſons of a very different rank will likewiſe have a tincture of their lineage; one in loftineſs, perhaps contempt; the other in awe, which is cloſely followed by hatred. Two perſons of different ideas on important matters of religion will be for making converts of each other; and theſe diſputes are none of the moſt gentle; hence altercations and a ſettled acrimony. Or, if they are ſo diſcreet as not to harp on this ſtring, they will ſecretly look on each other as on ill terms with God, in the way to damnation. There cannot be too abſolute a conformity, in every reſpect, between two perſons who are but one fleſh.

I have brought into account creditable means, neceſſary reſources, for a ſuitable maintenance; and here Providence is neither to be too much miſtruſted, nor too blindly relied on. On a minute inſpection it will appear that there are no ſtable ſettlements, no ſecure fortunes; every thing hangs by a thread, which an inviſible hand, when he thinks proper, ſnaps in two: ſo that to carry the calculation to all poſſible events is torturing ourſelves to no purpoſe. I ſuppoſe appearances are propitious. You have at preſent a decent income; experience, your ſkill and induſtry, ſeveral channels which you have procured to yourſelf, all give room to hope that you will ever be above want; this warrants the determination, if every thing elſe ſuits with your deſires. But to throw yourſelf headlong into a penury of which you already feel ſome preſſures; to unite hunger and thirſt; to bring into being children, whoſe portion probably will be toil, wretchedneſs, and ignorance; is an unpardonable folly. Here, as every where elſe, a juſt medium is the right way.

After all theſe precautions, you will ſay a marriage cannot fail of being happy; where theſe are all concentered, life muſt glide on in a perpetual calm and unclouded ſunſhine. No; this is what I dare not promiſe; and theſe precautions themſelves are no more than preliminary to others. I have hitherto taken notice only of what is to be done before the indiſſoluble knot be tied, that, in this happy or fatal ſtep, we may not reproach ourſelves. But, as every ſociety has its laws, its principles of government, for ſupporting its order, peace, and welfare; conjugal ſociety, ſtill more than

than any other, requires a ſcrupulous attention and exact obſervance of ſeveral prudential maxims. I ſuppoſe two perſons have taken the formidable ſtep of marriage; they are together, they are to paſs through life with one another, and to keep up, till the laſt gaſp, thoſe principles of eſteem and affection which induced them to unite: for it is to thoſe huſbands, who have been determined by ſuch principles, that my reflections are chiefly directed. Others, who have been actuated by machinal cauſes or ſordid views, are unworthy of any regard; beſides, I know of no remedy for them; let them ſuffer; it is their puniſhment in this world; and well it is for them, if it proves a ſufficient expiation for all their faults. But they who meant well, and have proceeded candidly; who expected a ſolid happineſs in an intimate union with the object of their eſteem and deſire, and who inſenſibly perceive that their ideas have been too luxuriant: theſe, I ſay, are ſtill recoverable, if not to the height of that imaginary felicity which they expected, at leaſt to a more ſupportable and eaſy condition than, for want of circumſpection and prudence, it uſually proves.

Firſt, no retroſpects, no uſeleſs reflections on the neglect of ſuch and ſuch a precaution: could I have thought—had I foreſeen—vain words! you ſhould have thought, you ſhould have foreſeen; now you muſt be ſilent, and make the moſt of your ſituation. All your agitations, ſo far from breaking your bands, will only render them the more galling to both; whereas, on the contrary, reaſon calls on you to reflection and ſerenity: form to yourſelf a plan of behaviour adapted to your ſituation; improve it, as you ſhall make new obſervations. This plan, and cuſtom, which moulds us into all ſhapes, will reſtore calm to your marriage, and perhaps joy and complacency.

Such is the variety of humours, genuiſes, tempers, and characters, that to determine the particular circumſtance of this plan muſt be left to the good ſenſe of every perſon who is in the caſe above-mentioned; general directions are all that can be given.

The firſt is, to be ſtrongly perſuaded that there is nobody without faults: this is a recollection, which it would ſeem ſuperfluous to inſiſt on, were there not a ſeaſon when paſſion expels all remembrance of it. Mad lovers ſincerely believe that the perſon they love is perfect, which they would very readily atteſt by the moſt ſolemn oaths; their imagination, heated by the ſenſes, ſees and hears only wonders. Nature has expreſſedly for them created a maſterpiece, which never had its equal. It is well if their extaſies do not riſe even to ſacrilege, and that they do not ſet up their idol for a deity, to which they would build temples, erect altars, and offer victims. But, as he who has been under a delirium afterwards finds his depreſſion the greater in proportion to the violence of his phrenſy, ſo theſe chimerical votaries ſee, with inexpreſſible anguiſh, that they have been the ſport of a real calenture of reaſon; and know not which way to turn themſelves, when, the fit being over, they find that they have irretrievably given themſelves up to one who, ſo far from being a deity, is ſcarcely a reaſonable creature. I own the ſtroke is overwhelming; but reaſon and reflection are the only aids to reſtore ſuch a pair to tranquillity.

Whoever ſtands in need of reciprocal forbearance ſhould be indulgent: now, as there is nobody who ſhould not bear with thoſe of another, you, who are ſo loud in your complaints, be pleaſed to caſt an eye on yourſelf, and ſee whether you do not give the ſame cauſes of complaints, or even greater. If you are without imperfection, load your imperfect conſort with the burſts of a juſt indignation; break, if you can, the ties which join you; and wait till, by a miracle, Nature forms you one of a more refined clay. But how unjuſt are we! the injured party is generally ſhe who obſerves a timorous ſilence, whilſt the other would juſtify his enormities by his clamours. No; in marriage there is no excluſive privilege; the terms are equal; each

brings to the partnerſhip fortune, perſon, induſtry, good qualities, and even defects. Of all theſe is compounded a total, of which they are equally to partake: as you would be borne with, learn to bear. Did we often call to mind theſe diſcreet ideas, did we ſift ourſelves with that ſeverity we uſe towards others, domeſtic variances would be much abated. Did we, immediately after marriage, or on the firſt preception of a decreaſe ſtealing on our love, habituate ourſelves to ſuch reflections, this ſociety would no longer be, as it too uſually is, the grave of love and pleaſure: a wavering paſſion would be ſuperſeded by a mutual forbearance, which naturally produces and ſtrengthens eſteem and friendſhip, the only diſpoſitions on which time has no power.

There are faults which only require gentle management wholly to ſubdue them. A wife, being young and in the age of feſtivity, loves diverſions; perhaps gives herſelf up to diſſipation even to ſome exceſs, ſo that domeſtic concerns ſuffer by it. Do you think that the beſt way will be, with an authoritative peremptorineſs, to debar her from thoſe objects, ſo unhappily attractive, and to force privacy on her? depend upon it, this is the direct way to ſtrengthen her fondneſs. Will you transform yourſelf into a moroſe cenſor; will you be continually dinning her ears with the hateful words of duty, regularity, and modeſty? this again is quite miſplaced; there are more effectual ways. Seem, in ſome meaſure, to cloſe with her ideas; do not dehort her from every thing at once: but from time to time detach her from one fancy, then from another, by mild repreſentations of the ridicule and danger attending them; and you may make yourſelf ſure, that at length an affectionate perſeverance and gentle intimations will bring her to ſubmit to all your wiſhes.

Were it only faults of this nature that marriage is expoſed to, reaſon and prudence might get the better of them; but, I muſt acknowledge it, and I fear my directions here will not take effect, there are inſupportable faults, which plunge into the moſt afflictive ſtate the perſons unfortunately annexed to thoſe who are infected with them; there are capital, mean, diſgraceful, vices, that frequent relapſes into them deſtroy all eſteem and attachment, and break the cloſeſt ties. Who is not concerned for a beauteous and ſweet-tempered wife treated with coldneſs and brutality by a ſavage huſband, whoſe natural depravation is every day carried to the higheſt pitch by intemperance and debauchery? how deplorable her ſtate? ſhe ſees him who, ſhe had flattered herſelf, would have been the delight of her life; under whoſe auſpices ſhe ſhould enjoy a creditable ſubſiſtence; her dear offſpring receive a promiſing education; ruining himſelf; his honour and fortune loſt in diſſipation, gaming, riot, and every kind of profligacy. Who can forbear lamenting the fate of a regular quiet man, ſubject to the inſolence, rage, and vociferations, of a ſhrew; who, inſtead of an adored wife, is linked with the fury of diſcord; whoſe adders never ceaſe from their malignant hiſſings; who ſtrives in vain to make the voice of reaſon be heard, and reſtore that calm, without which, the oppreſſor, no leſs than the oppreſſed, muſt be unhappy? How many odious characters in both ſexes may I not here add to theſe! and with what remedy ſhall I combat them? I cannot deny that the reſources in thoſe caſes are very few, and of very difficult practice; ſome, however, there are which have been known to produce the wiſhed-for effect. No extreme and deſperate meaſures here; it is ſeldom that noiſe and rupture do not increaſe the evil; for one whom at length you may intimidate, you will provoke a hundred beyond all accommodation. In order to extricate ourſelves from theſe misfortunes, we are, by exact and attentive obſervations, to ſearch whether theſe vices, ſtrong and afflictive as they are, may not yet be cured, or at leaſt abated. It is our duty to watch for thoſe ſeaſons when, through ſatiety, ſhame, or the unhappy conſequences of indulged paſſion, the vicious mind is on the point of breaking with its habits, and when the moſt ſlight aſſiſtance of a wife and

ſympathiſing

ſympathiſing friend would work an entire and laſting converſion. But alas! there are very few of a perſpicacity to make theſe obſervations, and of a goodneſs of heart to improve them. No ſooner do we begin to take a diſguſt againſt a perſon, than it quickly ſhoots up to a determined averſion; we are carried away by every malignant ſuggeſtion, without conſidering that by them our misfortunes will be immoveably fixed: reciprocal averſion for ever excludes thoſe moments of confidence and reconciliation which, more than once, have worked wonderful alterations. How many, eſpecially women, by a perfect patience and ſuperior endowments of mind, have at length ſurmounted the obſtacles which had alienated their huſbands hearts, and have brought them to a conviction that ſolid and true pleaſures are only to be found in virtue? in the want of theſe complete changes, which are ſometimes impoſſible, as nature and conſtitution cannot be caſt over again, there are lenitives, by which things are rendered much more ſupportable. Lions and tygers, we ſee, are ſo far tamed as to know and ſhew a fondneſs for thoſe who daily do them good: are more ſavage and obdurate monſters to be found amongſt mankind? It is a moſt indiſcreet way to ſeek eaſe in our grief by relating the cauſe of it to every comer: ſuch narratives the reigning malignity greedily ſeizes on, dreſſes them up and decorates them in its manner; ſo that, to the perſons concerned, they return quite changed and diſfigured; and, by ſuch circulations of reports, mere trifles ſwell to very unhappy occurrences. If there are caſes which admit of confidence, (and yet where to find a proper confidence?) if there are, I ſay, caſes, where ſuch an effuſion of the heart may be uſeful; matrimonial bickerings are not of the number. A prudent huſband, and conſequently a prudent wife, when it is their misfortune to have had words, go directly to the ſource of the evil, expoſtulate with each other, clear up the point, allow themſelves to have been in the wrong, and are not eaſy till they ſtifle the very remembrance of the cauſe of complaint. But when each ſets up a diſtinct intereſt and gathers partiſans, theſe two oppoſite factions begin a war which ſeldom ſees a happy period: every day ſome new grievance is brought on the carpet, diſcuſſed, and aggravated: every day the ſun, inſtead of giving light to reconciliation and love, ſets on wrath and rancour.

The other advice which I would here offer is, to retain in the conjugal ſociety certain attentions to politeneſs, which ſometimes are very imprudently thrown aſide. I am very well aware that this union frees from the conſtraint of ceremony, and places the married pair in a familiarity the more pleaſing as it is intimate; yet does not this familiarity exclude decency. To whom does it more behove us that we ſhould ſhew ourſelves in an amiable appearance, ſuch as conciliates eſteem and a kind of deference? this is very wrongly imagined an embelliſhment to be reſerved for the public; and that to be moroſe, humourſome, ſlovenly, and impolite, at home, ſignifies nothing: alas! the moſt engaging perſons, thoſe of the moſt attractive graces, on a near view, and with all their involuntary foibles, are ſufficiently little and contemptible without multiplying defects.

Not a few perſons ſeem to derive their qualities from the place they are in: abroad all wit, politeneſs, and charms; ſmiles enliven their countenance; their behaviour is ſprightly, their converſation entertaining; they are the ſoul, the joy, of every company. But, behold them within their own doors, what a metamorphoſis! a cloud lowers on their brow; monoſyllables are all that come from their mouths; they take pet at the buzzing of a fly; endearments are returned with ſullenneſs, and fondneſs with paſſion; dejection deadens the looks of all the family; and he, who ſhould be its ornament and pattern, is its plague and terror. He who behaves thus muſt very little underſtand his real intereſt; he muſt be his own enemy. Of all places, let me chuſe my moſt chearful hours under my own roof. Neatneſs and decency of the body and clothing come within

the attentions recommended in this article. No ſooner are a pair come together than all ſuch conſiderations are dropped, and they appear before each other in points of view very unfit to increaſe liking. Another imprudence very reprehenſible, and eſpecially in the fair ſex, who (as they owe the greateſt part of their ſovereignty to their allurements) ſhould ſeek to pleaſe in the ſeaſon when it is allowable and a lawful end invites; whereas the plain drift of all their elegancy is to ſecure a lover, who, when become a huſband, one would think, by their attire, is not worth their notice. How many currents, ſhelves, and rocks, occur in the voyage for which this eſſay may be a kind of compaſs; yet I dare flatter myſelf, that they who make uſe of this compaſs will find themſelves the better for it: let not the number of precautions, which I have ſpecified, deter. Can our attention be better employed? can there be a more commendable uſe made of our talents than to retrieve, eſtabliſh, and promote, the happineſs of a ſtate, the charms of which, between two perſons whoſe connexion is attended with maxims of honour and principles of virtue, conſtitute an union of ſentiment and ſoul, expreſſive of the bliſs of heaven!

SURPRISING EFFECTS OF COLD.

EXCESSIVE degrees of cold occur naturally in many parts of the globe in the winter-time. It is true, we are very much unacquainted with them in this country: yet in the winter of 1780, Mr. Wilſon of Glaſgow obſerved, that a thermometer laid on the ſnow ſunk to 25° below 0; but this was only for a ſhort time; and, in general our atmoſphere does not admit of very great degrees of cold for any length of time. Mr. Derham, however, in the year 1708, obſerved in England, that the mercury ſtood within one tenth of an inch of its ſtation when plunged into a mixture of ſnow and ſalt. In 1732, the thermometer at Peterſburg ſtood at 28° below 0; and in 1737, when the French academicians wintered at the north polar circle, or near it, the thermometer ſunk to 33° below 0; and in the Aſiatic and American continents ſtill greater degrees of cold are very common.

The effects of theſe extreme degrees of cold are very ſurpriſing. Trees are burſt, rocks rent, and rivers and lakes frozen ſeveral feet deep: metallic ſubſtances bliſter the ſkin like red-hot iron: the air, when drawn in by reſpiration, hurts the lungs, and excites a cough: even the effects of fire in a great meaſure ſeem to ceaſe; and, it is obſerved, that, though metals are kept for a conſiderable time before a ſtrong fire, they will ſtill freeze water when thrown upon them. When the French mathematicians wintered at Tornea in Lapland, the external air, when ſuddenly admitted into their rooms, converted the moiſture of the air into whirls of ſnow; their breaſts ſeemed to be rent when they breathed it, and the contact of it was intolerable to their bodies; and the ſpirit of wine, which had not been highly rectified, burſt ſome of their thermometers by the congelation of the aqueous part.

Extreme cold very often proves fatal to animals in thoſe countries where the winters are very ſevere; and thus 7000 Swedes periſhed at once in attempting to paſs the mountains which divide Norway from Sweden. It is not neceſſary, indeed, that the cold, in order to prove fatal to the human life, ſhould be ſo very intenſe as has been juſt mentioned. There is only requiſite a degree ſomewhat below 32° of Fahrenheit, accompanied with ſnow or hail from which ſhelter cannot be obtained. The ſnow which falls upon the clothes, or the uncovered parts of the body, then melts, and by a continual evaporation carries off the animal heat to ſuch a degree, that a ſufficient quantity is not left for the ſupport of life. In ſuch caſes, the perſon firſt feels himſelf extremely chill and uneaſy; he begins to turn liſtleſs, unwilling to walk or uſe exerciſe to keep himſelf

warm;

warm; and at laſt turns drowſy, ſits down to refreſh himſelf with ſleep, but wakes no more. An inſtance of this was ſeen not many years ago at Terra del Fuego; where Dr. Solander, with ſome others, having taken an excurſion up the country, the cold was ſo intenſe, that one of their number died. The doctor himſelf, although he had warned his companions of the danger of ſleeping in that ſituation, yet could not be prevented from making that dangerous experiment himſelf; and, though he was awaked with all poſſible expedition, his body was ſo much ſhrunk in bulk, that his ſhoes fell off his feet, and it was with the utmoſt difficulty that he was recovered.

In thoſe parts of the world where vaſt maſſes of ice are produced, the accumulation of it, by abſorbing the heat of the atmoſphere, occaſions an abſolute ſterility in the adjacent countries, as is particularly the caſe with the iſland of Iceland; where the vaſt collections of ice floating out from the Northern Ocean, and ſtopped on that coaſt, are ſometimes ſeveral years in thawing. Indeed, where great quantities of ice are collected, it would ſeem to have a power of augmenting its own cold, and that of adjacent bodies.

BATTLE OF GRANICUS.

GRANICUS is a ſmall river near the Helleſpont in Leſſer Aſia, remarkable for the firſt victory gained by Alexander the Great over the armies of Darius.—Authors diſagree very much about the number of the Perſians, though all agree that they were vaſtly more numerous than the Greeks. Juſtin and Oroſius tell us, that the Perſian army conſiſted of 600,000 foot and 20,000 horſe; Arrian makes the foot amount to 200,000; but Diodorus tells us, that they were not more than 100,000 foot and 10,000 horſe. The Macedonian army did not exceed 30,000 foot and 5000 horſe. The Perſian cavalry lined the banks of the Granicus, in order to oppoſe Alexander wherever he ſhould attempt a paſſage; and the foot were poſted behind the cavalry on an eaſy aſcent. Parmenio would have had Alexander allow his troops ſome time to refreſh themſelves; but he replied, that, after having croſſed the Helleſpont, it would be a diſgrace to him and his troops to be ſtopped by a rivulet. Accordingly a proper place for croſſing the river was no ſooner found, than he commanded a ſtrong detachment of horſe to enter; he himſelf followed with the right wing, which he commanded in perſon; the trumpets in the mean time ſounding, and loud ſhouts of joy being heard through the whole army. The Perſians let fly ſuch ſhowers of arrows againſt the detachment of Macedonian horſe, as cauſed ſome confuſion; ſeveral of their horſes being killed or wounded. As they drew near the bank, a moſt bloody engagement enſued; the Macedonians attempting to land, and the Perſians puſhing them back into the river. Alexander, who obſerved the confuſion they were in, took the command of them himſelf; and, landing in ſpite of all oppoſition, obliged the Perſian cavalry, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, to give ground. However, Spithrobates, governor of Ionia, and ſon-in-law to Darius, ſtill maintained his ground, and did all that lay in his power to bring them back to the charge. Alexander advanced full gallop to engage him; neither did he decline the combat, and both were ſlightly wounded at the firſt encounter. Spithrobates, having thrown his javelin without effect, advanced ſword in hand to meet his antagoniſt, who ran him through with his pike as he raiſed his arm to diſcharge a blow with his ſcymitar. But Roſaces, brother to Spithrobates, at the ſame time gave Alexander ſuch a furious blow on the head with his battle-axe, that he beat off his plume, and ſlightly wounded him through the helmet. As he was ready to repeat the blow, Clitus with one ſtroke of his ſcymitar cut off Roſaces' head, and thus in all probability ſaved the life of his ſove-

reign,

reign. The Macedonians, animated by the example of their king, attacked the Perſians with new vigour, who ſoon after betook themſelves to flight. Alexander did not purſue them; but immediately charged the enemy's foot with all his forces, who had now paſſed the river. The Perſians, diſheartened at the defeat of their cavalry, made no great reſiſtance. The Greek mercenaries retired in good order to a neighbouring hill, whence they ſent deputies to Alexander deſiring leave to march off unmoleſted. But he, inſtead of coming to a parley with them, ruſhed furiouſly into the middle of this ſmall body; where his horſe was killed under him, and he himſelf in great danger of being cut in pieces. The Greeks defended themſelves with incredible valour for a long time, but were at laſt almoſt entirely cut off. In this battle the Perſians are ſaid to have loſt 20,000 foot and 2500 horſe, and the Macedonians only 55 foot and 60 horſe.

[The Portraits of NORMAN SOLDIERS, given in this Number, are to be placed oppoſite page 138 of the Wars of England, where their accoutrements and mode of fighting are fully deſcribed.]

GALLANT ACTION between Captain Sir EDWARD PELLEW, in La Nymphe Frigate, and Captain Jean Mullon, in the French Ship Cleopatra, captured June 18, 1793. Embelliſhed with a correct and elegant Repreſentation of the hotteſt part of the Action, when the Cleopatra was boarded, and the French driven from their Quarters, by the brave Britiſh Sailors.

THE commencement of the late action, between La Nymphe and Cleopatra, was the moſt noble and awful that the naval hiſtory of the world ever recorded; that even of Paul Jones and the Serapis not excepted. The French captain ordered his ſhip to be manned, and, coming forward on the gangway, in the moſt firm and collected manner, pulled off his hat, and called out, "*Vive la Nation!*" which was re-echoed by the whole of the French ſhip's company, who gave three cheers. Captain Pellew, in like manner, ordered his men from quarters to the ſhrouds, and gave three noble huzzas to "LONG LIVE KING GEORGE THE THIRD!" and, putting on his hat, he gave the ſignal for cloſe action, one of the moſt deſperate ever fought. The greateſt part of the time the two ſhips were yard-arm and yard-arm, and ſo cloſe that any perſon might have been killed by piſtol-ſhot. In this manner the action was ſupported, with undiminiſhed valour on both ſides, for near an hour; when, the mizen maſt and the tiller of the Cleopatra's rudder being ſhot away, ſhe fell foul of La Nymphe, and became entangled in her ſhrouds:—At this inſtant orders were given to board her, which was done with ſuch courage and intrepidity, that the Britiſh ſailors attacked the Frenchmen at their quarters, drove them with great ſlaughter from their guns, and ſtruck the French colours themſelves, a circumſtance ſcarcely to be heard of of the naval annals of any country. The Nymphe carried 36 guns, and 250 men; the Cleopatra 40 guns, and 320 men. The French captain was killed early in the action, and the ſecond captain is ſince dead of his wounds; for the reſt of the killed and wounded, with the official account of the engagement, ſee page 63 of this Magazine.

His majeſty, in proof of his high approbation of the conduct of Capt. Pellew, the gallant commander of La Nymphe, conferred upon him the honour of knighthood, and ſettled a liberal annuity on Lady Pellew during her life. Captain Iſrael Pellew, who was with his brother, and rendered infinite ſervice in the action, is promoted to the rank of poſt-captain; and Mr. Amherſt Morris, firſt lieutenant of La Nymphe, is promoted to the rank of maſter and commander.

Sir Edward Pellew is the brave officer who ſucceeded to the command of the Apollo frigate, of 32 guns, on the death of Captain Pownall.

SELECT

SELECT POETRY.

ODE for the NEW YEAR, 1794.

By Henry James Pye, Esq. Poet-Laureat.

NURTUR'D in ſtorms, the infant year
Comes in terrific glory forth;
Earth meets him wrapp'd in mantle drear,
And the loud tempeſt ſings his birth.
Yet 'mid the elemental ſtrife
Brood the rich germs of vernal life.
Frore January's iron reign,
And the dank months ſucceeding train,
The renovated glebe prepare
For genial May's ambroſial air,
For fruits that glowing Summer yields,
For laughing Autumn's golden fields;
And the ſtout ſwain, whoſe frame defies
The driving ſtorm, the hoſtile ſkies,
While his keen plowſhare turns the ſtubborn ſoil,
Knows plenty only ſprings the juſt reward of toil.

Then if fell War's tempeſtuous ſound
Swell far and wide with louder roar,
If ſtern th'avenging nations round
Threaten yon fate-devoted ſhore,
Hope points to gentler hours again
When Peace ſhall re-aſſume her reign.—
Yet never o'er his timid head
Her laſting olive ſhall be ſpread,
Whoſe breaſt inglorious wooes her charms
When Fame, when Juſtice, call to arms.—
While Anarchy's infuriate brood,
Their garments dy'd with guiltleſs blood,
With Titan rage blaſpheming try
Their impious battle 'gainſt the ſky,
Say, ſhall Britannia's generous ſons embrace
In folds of amity the harpy race,
Or aid the ſword that coward fury rears,
Red with the widow's blood, wet with the orphan's tears?

But, though her martial thunders fall
Vindictive o'er Oppreſſion's haughty creſt,
Awake to Pity's ſuaſive call,
She ſpreads her buckler o'er the ſuffering breaſt.—
From ſeas that roll by Gallia's ſouthmoſt ſteep,
From the rich iſles that crown th'Atlantic deep,
The plaintive ſigh, the heart-felt groan,
Are wafted to her Monarch's Throne;
Open to Mercy, prompt to ſave,
His ready navies plow the yielding wave,
The ruthleſs arm of ſavage licenſe awe,
And guard the ſacred reign of Freedom and of Law.

WINTER.

AH, ye! who meet ſtern winter's frown,
Upheld by fortune's powerful hand,
Who ſee the chilling ſnow come down,
With all her comforts at command:

Oh! think of their leſs happy doom,
Whom poverty's ſharp woes aſſail!
No ſparkling fire, no cheerful room,
Revives their cheek, cold, ſunk, and pale.

Deep howls the wind! the pelting rain
Drips through the ſhatter'd caſement cold:
While the ſad mother's arms contain
Her infants ſhivering in their fold.

In vain they raiſe their piteous cry,
And plead, at hungry nature's call:
Their only food a mother's ſigh!
Their only warmth the tears that fall!

Stretch'd on his miſerable bed,
The wretched father ſinks in grief;
Pale ſickneſs reſts upon his head,
And only hopes from death relief.

The parent's tender mournful eyes
Mingle their faint and humid beams:
Freſh woes from retroſpection riſe,
Freſh ſource from mem'ry's fountain ſtreams!

O Rich;—the tranſport might be thine,
To ſoothe their ſufferings into peace!
To bid the ſun of comfort ſhine;
And want's oppreſſive empire ceaſe!

To ſee the glow of health's return
Reanimate their faded cheek!
Life's feeble ſpark rekindled burn,
And give—what language cannot ſpeak!

On fancy's pinion oft I roam,
With pity, partner of my flight;
Forget awhile that grief's my own,
And taſte a ſoothing ſweet delight:

Forget the many, poignant, woes,
That weigh this drooping form to earth;
Where reſtleſs ſorrow hopes repoſe,
'Scap'd from thoſe ills which gave it birth!

O ye, embark'd for pleaſure's ſhore,
Reſtrain awhile the fluttering ſail!
At pity's call, retard the oar,
Nor let her plaintive pleadings fail!

BELINDA. An Epigram.

BELINDA has ſuch wond'rous charms,
'Tis heav'n to lie within her arms;
And ſhe's ſo charitably giv'n,
She wiſhes all mankind—in heav'n.

The EVENING SONGSTERS.

HOW ſweet the winding of this wood!
How ſweet its ſhady ſhady way!
And from yon copſe how ſweet the thruſh,
That warbles loud and gay!

Each note re-echoes through the vale,
Retirement's ſofteſt reſt;
Where peace in yonder cottage dwells,
With love, congenial gueſt.

Yon thatch is ſpread with aged oaks,
That wreathe their limbs on high;
And to the waving branches ſee,
Another warbler fly.

Elate the fluttering being now
Begins its notes to trill;
And all the copſe re-echoes to
The ſongſter's tuneful ſkill.

Here let me ſit beneath this rock,
Where hawthorns gaily blow;
Where tinted ſhrubs look blooming fair,
And violets ſmile below.

Theſe primroſe cluſters thick around,
Diffuſe a fragrant ſmell;
The ſcatter'd furze profuſely rich,
Perfumes the rocky cell.

That monarch oak, that hangs ſo low
Its moſſy limbs and ſhade,
Protects the harmleſs wood-dove's young,
And lambs when heats invade.

Yon ivy from the root aſcends,
With tendrils circling creeps,
To claſp the lofty ſummit wide,
Where the night-ſongſter ſleeps.

Now in the dell fair nature reſts,
Where ne'er obtrudes ſad care:
Rich is the concert of the vale,
And evening bluſhes fair.

Whoe'er theſe ſilent paths ſhall tread,
Meets pleaſure in his way:
Sure as the ſun whoſe crimſon light
Enriches parting day.

How bleſt to taſte ſuch pleaſures pure!
To waſte the happy days!
But innocence muſt e'er delight;
Is ever ſure to pleaſe.

SAILOR's EPITAPH.

WHETHER ſailor or not, for a moment avaſt!
Poor Tom's mizen top-ſail is laid to the maſt;
He'll never turn out, or more heave the lead;
He's now all a-back, nor will ſails ſhoot a-head;
He ever was briſk, and, tho' now gone to wreck,
When he hears the laſt whiſtle he'll jump upon deck.

The FEUDAL SOLDIER.

THY haughty eye diſdains the vine-clad cot,
And its rude owner, whoſe ſalubrious board
Pomona kind and Naiads fair have ſtor'd:
Simple, but dignified, his humble lot.
When patriotiſm call'd, from ſuch retreat
Sprang ancient valour, ſon of toil ſevere
And ſun-burnt health; he ſnatch'd the glittering ſpear,
Leaving the plow, his country's foes to meet.
Nor back the eagle wing'd her flight to Rome,
Till, bearing bloody ſpoils, he led the march
Triumphant through the ſculpture-woven arch.
Where victory rear'd ſublime her laureate dome.
Then moderation's hand diſarm'd the ſwain,
And led him ſmiling to his cot again.

BEARDS. An EPIGRAM.

THE reaſon why men ſhould have beards on their face,
And that tattling women have none,
Is—the devil cant ſhave ſuch a chattering race,
But he'd cut their glib cheeks to the bone.

To a LADY,

With a Calendar for the New Year.

ACCEPT, Eliza! from a friend ſincere,
This frail memorial of the infant year.
And with it take, in unaffected lays,
The warmeſt withes this fond heart can raiſe!

Oh! as you muſe the little record o'er,
And count the paſſing hours which come no more!
O think what racking pain his boſom gores
Who ſighs unpity'd where his ſoul adores!

Yet, deareſt maid! with each revolving year,
May'ſt thou in renovating charms appear!
Bleſt in thy friendſhips, happy in thy love,
Ne'er may thy breaſt one anxious minute prove!

But, oh! may laughing hours, unclouded, bring
Unfading ſummer! univerſal ſpring!
And when, at laſt, life's evening ſhall decay.
May'ſt thou ariſe to never-ending day!

FOREIGN

FOREIGN NEWS.

From the LONDON GAZETTES.

MANHEIM, *Dec.* 2, 1793.

ON the 29th ult. the French troops to the number of 30,000 men attacked the Duke of Brunſwick in the entrenchments of Lautern, but were repulſed with great loſs. A ſecond attack was made by them on the 30th, when they were again compelled to retreat; and the Duke of Brunſwick having learnt, the following day, that a body of the French was again formed at Rainſtein, his ſerene highneſs immediately marched to attack them, and ſucceeded in driving them beyond Hombourg, after taking from them their baggage, artillery, and ammunition. On the ſame day a general attack was made on the whole line of General Wurmſer's army, and, after an engagement which laſted the whole day, the French were driven beyond Straſbourg.

BRUSSELS, *Dec.* 10. The particulars of the frequent actions which General Wurmſer and the Duke of Brunſwick had with the French army on the 29th and 30th of November, and the 1ſt and 2d of December, have not yet been received here, further than that the French were repulſed with conſiderable loſs on thoſe ſeveral days. The number of French killed, wounded, and taken priſoners, according to the beſt accounts, appears not to be leſs than 15,000 men.

WHITEHALL, *Dec.* 23.

The diſpatches, of which the following are a copy and extracts, were received laſt night from Toulon by the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

SIR, TOULON, *Nov.* 18, 1793.

On the evening of the 15th inſt. Fort Mulgrave, ſituated on the heights of Balaguier, one of the moſt eſſential poſts that cover this town and harbour, was vigorouſly and repeatedly attacked by a large corps of the enemy. I have particular pleaſure in mentioning, that, on this occaſion, the very ſpirited exertions of the Britiſh troops, ſtationed at Fort Mulgrave, conſiſting of a detachment of the 2d battalion of the firſt or royal regiment of foot, commanded by Captain D. Campbell, and of a detachment of the royal artillery, commanded by Lieut. Lemoine, were the principal means of repulſing the enemy, and ſaving that important poſt.

The enemy, from the corroborating accounts of different deſerters, are ſaid to have loſt in this attack about 600 men, killed and wounded. Our loſs including the Spaniards, Neapolitans, and Sardinians, amounted only to 61. Among the wounded were Capt. Duncan Campbell, of the royals, and Lieut. Lemoine of the royal artillery, who, I am happy to add, are now in a favourable ſtate of recovery. I have the honour to be, &c.

CHA. O'HARA.

Extract of a Letter from their Excellencies the Commiſſioners at Toulon to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his Majeſty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home department.

TOULON, *Nov.* 23, 1793.

We had the honour of receiving his majeſty's commiſſion, together with inſtructions for the regulation of our conduct, on the 14th inſtant.

On the 20th we deſired a deputation of the inhabitants to attend us at the governor's houſe. His excellency thought it beſt, for the ſake of avoiding all miſunderſtanding, to ſpeak on this occaſion from a written paper, of which we have the honour to incloſe a copy.

We then read, according to his majeſty's commands, a declaration in his majeſty's name; a copy of which is incloſed.

We delivered copies of theſe papers to the chief of the deputation, and directed them to be printed, publiſhed, and circulated as generally as poſſible.

We had the pleaſure to obſerve, that his majeſty's gracious and honourable declaration was received with the ſtrongeſt marks of gratitude and ſatisfaction.

His Excellency Governor O'Hara's Speech to the Deputation of Inhabitants on the 20th of November, 1793.

GENTLEMEN,

As ſoon as the king was informed of the events which had taken place at Toulon, his majeſty was deſirous to give an authentic proof, not only of the ſatisfaction which he had experienced from theſe events, but alſo of his entire approbation of the engagements which had been entered into, in his name, with the town of Toulon. His majeſty was alſo deſirous to give you a poſitive aſſurance that he will punctually fulfil thoſe engagements.

His majeſty is ſenſible that the poſſeſſion of this town, under all the circumſtances in which it was accepted, preſents to his attention objects of the greateſt importance, and lays him under the moſt ſacred obligations. His majeſty has already taken, and will continue to take,

every meaſure, which circumſtances will permit, for the protection of the town and of its inhabitants. With a view of providing for theſe objects, and of fulfilling, as effectually as poſſible, the other duties which ariſe from the preſent ſituation of his majeſty with reſpect to the town and inhabitants of Toulon, he has thought proper to confide to Lord Hood, Sir Gilbert Elliot, Bart. and myſelf, a commiſſion which was lately delivered to us under the great ſeal of England.

By this commiſſion we are authorized to act, in his majeſty's name, in the direction of the affairs and civil intereſts of Toulon, as alſo of all other places and diſtricts in France, which may be occupied by his majeſty's arms, or come into his poſſeſſion; and there to provide for the eſtabliſhment of good order and of a regular government, for the impartial adminiſtration of juſtice, and the protection of perſons and property.

Theſe, gentlemen, are the powers, immediately relative to the affairs and concerns of Toulon, with which his majeſty has been pleaſed to intruſt us, and which we have thought proper to impart to you. I will not add any thing reſpecting the honourable intentions and generous diſpoſitions of his majeſty, becauſe they will be more particularly and more ſatisfactorily explained to you by a declaration which, by his order, we ſhall addreſs to the inhabitants of Toulon, and publiſh in his name. I ſhall now conclude by reading it to you.

DECLARATION *of the* KING.

We, the underſigned commiſſioners plenipotentiary of his majeſty the King of Great-Britain, do hereby publiſh, by his orders, and in his name, the following declaration:

His Britannic majeſty having been informed of the circumſtances under which the town, harbour, and forts, of Toulon, and the ſhips in the ſaid harbour, have been intruſted to Vice-admiral Lord Hood, commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Mediterranean, and of the declarations and proclamations publiſhed by the ſaid vice-admiral, as well as of the declarations made to him on the part of the inhabitants and people of Toulon, has thought fit, for the further ſatisfaction of the ſaid inhabitants and people, and for the full explanation of his royal intentions, to declare as follows.

I. When monarchy ſhall be reſtored in France, and a treaty of peace concluded, ſtipulating, in favour of his majeſty and his allies, the reſtitution of all conqueſts made by France during the war, and a juſt indemnification for the loſſes and expences thereby incurred, and a proper ſecurity for the future, his majeſty will cauſe the town, forts, and harbour, of Toulon, together with the ſhips and ſtores therein, to be reſtored, according to the engagement entered into by the ſaid vice-admiral.

II. His majeſty has given directions, that the moſt effectual meaſures ſhall be taken for the protection of the perſons and property of the inhabitants of the ſaid town, and for procuring them the ſupplies of proviſions and other articles of which they ſtand in need; and his majeſty is alſo graciouſly pleaſed to approve of continuing all perſons who held civil or military employments in their reſpective places and occupations, as far as circumſtances and the good of the common cauſe will permit.

III. His majeſty will do every thing in his power, and in concert with his allies, to repel any attacks which may be made againſt Toulon, and to extend his protection to all thoſe who may be deſirous to have recourſe to it, under certain conditions.

IV. His majeſty ſincerely wiſhes the happineſs of France, but by no means deſires, on this account, to preſcribe any particular form of government. The king claims the right of taking a part, only becauſe the anarchy which now deſolates that country threatens the tranquillity of his own ſubjects, and that of the others powers of Europe, whoſe ſafety and peace materially depend on the re-eſtabliſhment of order in France, and of a regular ſyſtem, which may hold out to them a ſecure ground of negociation and friendſhip: and his majeſty does not heſitate to declare, that the re-eſtabliſhment of monarchy, in the perſon of Louis XVII. and the lawful heirs of the crown, appears to him the beſt mode of accompliſhing theſe juſt and ſalutary views. This form of government has not only prevailed in France from the earlieſt times, but, being capable of ſuch limitations as may ſuit the reſpective circumſtances of different nations, has been proved by experience to be the beſt adapted, in great countries, to unite the advantages of ſecurity and order with real liberty.

Such a ſyſtem, ſubject to ſuch modifications as may hereafter be made therein in a regular and legal manner, when tranquillity ſhall have been reſtored in France, would afford to his majeſty the beſt and moſt pleaſing proſpect of terminating the evils and miſeries now endured by the French nation, and of the renewal of a regular and amicable intercourſe between that country and other ſtates.

It is to these great ends that his majesty's measures will be directed; and his protection and assistance will be extended, as far as circumstances will admit, to all those who manifest their desire to concur in so salutary a work.

(Signed) HOOD.
GILBERT ELLIOT.
CHARLES O'HARA.

[The British kept possession of Toulon but a short time, as will soon appear.]

WHITEHALL, *Dec.* 25.

Copy of a Letter from Major-general David Dundas, to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department.

SIR, TOULON, *Nov.* 30.

I have the honour to acquaint you, that the enemy, having opened a considerable battery on the height of Arennes, which much annoyed one of our principal outposts (Malbousquet), it became necessary to attack it. Dispositions for that purpose were made, and this morning, at five o'clock, a corps of 400 British, 300 Sardinians, 600 Neapolitans, 600 Spaniards, and 400 French, under my command, marched from the town. Notwithstanding the whole was obliged to cross the new river on one bridge only, to divide into four columns, to march across olive-grounds intersected by stone-walls, and to ascend a very considerable height, cut into vine-terraces, yet we succeeded in surprising and forcing the enemy, and were soon in full possession of the battery and height: but I am sorry to say, that, instead of forming upon and occupying the long and narrow summit of the hill, agreeable to orders and military prudence, the impetuosity of the troops led them to follow the enemy, to descend the height, to ascend other distant heights, and, at last, in disorder, to encounter such superior advancing numbers, as obliged them precipitately to retire, and to relinquish the advantages we at first gained.

It is with much concern I must add, that Lieutenant-general O'Hara, who had arrived at the battery on our first success, was involved in the consequence of this sudden reverse, was wounded in the arm, and made prisoner.

We have to regret that so many gallant officers and men have suffered on this occasion. The loss of the British I have the honour to inclose; that of the other nations is not in proportion great.

From General O'Hara's absence the command devolves on me. I shall endeavour to discharge it to the best of my ability and health, till his majesty's further pleasure is signified. I have the honour to be, &c. (Signed)

D. DUNDAS, Major-gen.

Return of the Killed, Wounded, and Missing, of the British Troops, on the 30th of November, 1793, at Toulon.

Total. 1 Lieutenant, 1 serjeant, 18 rank and file, killed; 4 captains, 4 lieutenants, 2 serjeants, 2 drummers, 78 rank and file, wounded; 1 major, 7 serjeants, 2 drummers, 88 rank and file, missing.

Officers Killed, Wounded, and taken Prisoners.

Lieutenant-general O'Hara wounded, and taken prisoner.

Captain Snow, deputy quarter-master, killed; Captain Smith, 25th regiment, major of brigade, wounded.

Royals. Captains Reeves and Finney wounded and taken prisoners; Lieutenant-colonel Macdonald and Lieutenant Mackenzie wounded; Lieutenant Bird wounded and missing; Lieutenant M'Kellar killed.

69th Regiment. Major Campbell taken prisoner.

Royal Artillery. Captain Stephens and Lieutenant Bradie woundstd.

GEORGE SMITH, Major of Brigade.

[*This Gazette contains also a Letter from Lord Hood, and another from Sir Gilbert Elliot, to the same effect.*]

TURIN, *Dec.* 18, 1793.

By accounts received from Barcelona, dated the 11th instant, it appears, that intelligence had arrived there from the camp at Roussillon, that the Spaniards and Portuguese had obtained a complete victory in a general action over the French, in which the latter lost between seven and eight hundred men killed or drowned in passing the river Tec, about 600 taken prisoners; 46 pieces of cannon, two howitzers, one mortar, a great number of muskets, with tents, clothing, ammunition, and stores. The loss of the Spaniards and Portuguese amounts to 200 men.

LEGHORN. *Dec.* 22. The master of a Neapolitan brig, just arrived from Toulon, reports, that on the 17th instant the French made a general attack on the advanced posts and forts, and particularly on Fort Balaguier, of which they gained possession: that on the morning of the 18th the English set fire to the arsenal and French fleet: that on the same day the Neapolitan troops embarked and immediately sailed: that the English and Spaniards remained on shore, and at that time in possession of Fort La Malgue; that the English and Spanish fleets, with some French ships, had anchored out of the reach

reach of the cannon of the place; and that tranſports were preparing for the embarkation of the French royaliſts.

BRUSSELS, *Jan.* 4. Intelligence has been received here that the blockade of Landau is raiſed. It appears that the French had continued their attacks every day till the 26th ultimo, when they advanced early in the morning in force againſt the Duke of Brunſwick, who was at Bergzabern, with his van-guard commanded by Prince Hohenloe. That the grenadier battalion of Kleiſt and two companies of chaſſeurs advanced to meet the French; that they were at firſt repulſed, but that Prince Hohenloe then marched forward to their ſupport, with ſome artillery, and that the enemy were at laſt completely routed; that towards mid-day, however, the attack was renewed on the right of General Wurmſer's poſition, who was compelled to retreat, and has ſince re-croſſed the Rhine in two columns. The Duke of Brunſwick takes a poſition to cover Mayence. A garriſon is left in Fort Louis.

NATIONAL CONVENTION, *Paris, December* 24.

Thuriot read the following Letters:

OLLIOULES, *Dec.* 19.

I arrive from Toulon, my dear friend, which a diviſion of our troops entered about three o'clock in the morning. After having bombarded that infamous city during twelve hours, the enemies evacuated it with precipitation, at the moment when the ſcaling ladders were ready to ſcale it; at ſetting out, they ſet fire to thoſe of our ſhips which they could not carry along with them, as likewiſe to the arſenals. The city is now all in flames, and exhibits the moſt horrid ſpectacle. Almoſt all the inhabitants fled; and thoſe who remain will ſerve to appeaſe the manes of our brave brothers who fought with ſo much valour.

SALICETTI.

LYONS, *Dec.* 21. The repreſentative of the people Albitte has received the news of the re-capture of the port of Toulon by the army of the republic.—This intelligence is the more intereſting, as the patriots, whom ariſtocracy began to divide, will re-unite ſtronger than ever. We only loſt about two hundred men in this affair. The enemies ſet fire to ſome of our ſhips, but many of them remain for us. *The Spaniards are done for:* we ſhall enter their country as we pleaſe.

SULES,
Commander of the Executive Power.

On the re-capture of Toulon by the troops of the republic, the committee of public welfare have made a report, which has not yet appeared in print. Amid the rejoicings natural on ſuch an important event, it is a matter of regret to every true republican, that one of the fineſt ports of France is entirely deſtroyed—an arſenal, conſidered as one of the fineſt in Europe, conſumed by fire—and a navy, once powerful and reſpected, become the property of the allies, or a prey to the flames. The ariſtocrats of Toulon, for the moſt part, eſcaped.

General Orders of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, Commander in Chief.

Head-quarters, Tournay, *Dec.* 13.

His royal highneſs the commander in chief cannot ſuffer the troops to go into winter-quarters, without expreſſing to them, previous to their ſeparation, the ſenſe he entertains of the intrepidity, patience, and perſeverance, they have diſplayed, ſo much to their own honour and his ſatisfaction, in the courſe of the campaign.

His royal highneſs deſires the officers and men will accept his warmeſt acknowledgments, and be aſſured their meritorious exertions have made an impreſſion on his mind that will never be effaced.—He is perſuaded that the good conduct of the troops in quarters will equal their gallantry in the field.--His royal highneſs deſires the officers will explain to their men the good conſequences which muſt naturally enſue from their conciliating, by their good behaviour, the affection of our allies, the ſubjects of his imperial majeſty; and his royal highneſs is perfectly aſſured, that every officer, feeling the importance of this object, will take every opportunity of giving it the weight it ſo juſtly deſerves, both by precept and example.

His royal highneſs orders, that all the troops under his command pay proper reſpect to the Hoſt, and all other religious proceſſions. He directs that all ſentinels carry their arms when any religious proceſſion is paſſing; and demands the attention of all officers, but particularly of thoſe on duty, to prevent the ſmalleſt impropriety being committed on theſe occaſions.

His royal highneſs is confident, that the troops under his command will ever bear in mind, that, though we differ in ſome of the ceremonies of religion, we unite with our gallant allies, and it is our glory to do ſo, in every ſentiment of devotion to our Creator, and attachment and loyalty to our ſovereigns.

DOMESTIC

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

THE arrival of an ambaſſador from the court of Conſtantinople is amongſt the public events of which it is our duty to take notice. A miniſter of this dignity has not been delegated by the Sublime Porte during more than the laſt forty years, which ſufficiently indicates the importance of his miſſion. The curioſity of the public is naturally excited by ſuch an occurrence, and will not be diſpleaſed to be directed towards the imputed objects of his undertaking.—To open the whole trade of the Levant and Archipelago to the ſubjects of Great-Britain, the only European nation whoſe navigation and capital can recompenſe the Turkiſh empire for the interruption of its commerce, occaſioned by the blockade of Marſeilles, Cette, &c. and the other French ports in the Mediterranean, is, doubtleſs, one of the chief and moſt important deſigns of this extraordinary legation: but it may be ſuſpected that the views of the divan are not wholly commercial, and that it deſires to repair its political alliances, as well as to renew the traffic of its ſeas. Till the laſt peace under the mediation of Great-Britain, France has been the conſtant ally, the guardian genius, of the Turkiſh dominions in Europe: it was her weakneſs, not her indiſpoſition, which compelled her to ſuffer this glorious and beneficial office to deſcend on the court of St. James. The ſtrict alliance between the courts of Vienna and St. Peterſburgh, to which no counterpoiſe can any longer be found in the navies of France, threatens to open the Mediterranean and to expoſe the ſtraits of the Dardanelles to the fleets of Revel and Archangel. The politics of Conſtantinople ſeem therefore to require a firm defenſive treaty with England, and ſhe will purchaſe it with all her invaluable trade; though it can ſcarcely be doubted, that, were the ſtipulations gratuitous on our part, the true intereſt of Great-Britain would require of us to ſhut theſe ſeas againſt the enterpriſes of Ruſſia.

Governor Philips has given in his reſignation of the government of New South Wales; and Captain Hunter, who commanded the Sirius frigate when the colony was firſt founded, and who is now aſſiſtant captain of the Queen Charlotte, Lord Howe's flag-ſhip, is to ſucceed as governor of this ſettlement.

There are many ſincere and zealous friends of miniſtry who have always been doubtful of the policy of keeping Toulon, conſidering the vaſt number of troops neceſſary for the defence of it, and the very great expence which the requiſite military and marine eſtabliſhments would certainly have demanded; and it has been pronounced the wiſeſt meaſure to deſtroy and abandon the place. Whatever may be thought of this reaſoning, it was certainly right to defend it to the laſt extremity; and therefore miniſters muſt he admitted to have acted with a ſpirit ſuitable the heroic character of their country, in not directing a retreat from ſo important a poſt till it was found abſolutely untenable; while, on the other had, due care was taken that it ſhould be effectually demoliſhed.

His majeſty's cutter Pigmy, of 14 guns, Lieut. Pullibank commander, ſailed from Torbay with the wind at S. S. W. bound to Plymouth; in the courſe of the day the wind veered rather ſouth, and increaſed to a violent gale, attended with very thick hazy weather; about ſix o'clock in the evening they found themſelves very near the ſhore, abreaſt of Motherbank, a ſmall inlet, 12 miles eaſt of Plymouth, and the eaſtern extremity of that port, dividing it from Dartmouth, which place it is ſaid they miſtook for the entrance of Plymouth Sound. The ſea running mountains high, and the wind right on the ſhore, they were under the neceſſity of letting go two anchors to prevent her drifting on the rocks; the anchors held faſt for about two hours, at which time the cutter began to drive; one of the boats with five people on-board then put off from her, and ſhe fortunately reached the ſhore, though one of the ſeamen was drowned in the attempt. At nine o'clock the cutter drifted on the rocks, and fell broadſide on, when the crew began cutting away the maſt, which very providentially fell towards the ſhore, and afforded an opportunity for the officers and crew to ſave themſelves, the greater part of whom, by this means, reached the rocks in ſafety. The commander, Lieut. Pullibank, as the crew report, could not be prevailed on to leave the cutter, through by ſtaying he had nothing but inevitable deſtruction before him; and this officer, with about eleven others, (the number not exactly aſcertained,) were unfortunately drowned, and the cutter by eleven o'clock at night was daſhed to atoms. The crew, when the cutter ſailed from Torbay, conſiſted of 65 perſons; there was alſo on-board her, a woman, the wife of one of the ſailors, that had the day before been delivered of a child, who together with the infant were ſaved.

Major

Major Semple.—This extraordinary man, deſtined to make a conſpicuous figure while he remains on earth, has lately appeared in a character and ſituation, the detail of which, though true, will ſcarcely be credited.—By ſome means or other he contrived, in the courſe of laſt winter, to be received in the Auſtrian lines as a deſerter from the French ſervice, and brought with him ſuch perfect information of the ſtate of Dumourier's army, and the diſaffection then prevailing therein, that he was received in full confidence, He ſtyled himſelf Major Delie. At the battle of Tirlemont he was put at the head of a ſquadron of huſſars, and performed the memorable ſervice of driving the French from their ſtrong battery, and taking three pieces of their cannon. After this ſingular exploit, he was received at head-quarters in a manner moſt flattering to his wiſhes. He was afterwards conſtantly at the table of the hereditary Prince of Orange, at Bruſſels, and had the honour to hand the princeſs to her carriage, in preference to moſt of the military ſuite. He was at this time received by Lord Auckland, the Britiſh miniſter; and, on the ſtadtholder's arrival at Bruſſels, he was introduced at his court, where he became ſo great a favourite, that a command of a regiment of Dutch chaſſeurs was promiſed him. He wore an huſſar uniform, which ſet off the elegance of his figure to the utmoſt advantage; and this, with the poliſhed ſtyle of his addreſs, gave him no ſmall influence in the female circles of Bruſſels; unfortunately, however, the career of his ſingular glory was blaſted about two months ſince, by the arrival of a Scotch gentleman of great reſpectability, who immediately recogniſed in our hero the celebrated Major Semple.—Mr. Roſs, jun. chargé des affaires at the Hague, then alſo at Bruſſels, being informed of the diſcovery, immediately waited on the Prince of Orange, and made him acquainted with the character who had thus riſen ſo rapidly into military eſtimation.—In conſequence thereof the major was informed that he muſt inſtantly give up his commiſſion, or his degradation would be made in public orders at the head of the line.—By the humane interference of the gentleman who diſcovered him, he was reſcued, however, from this diſgrace, and, we believe, ſuffered to retain his rank, on condition of his retiring from the ſervice. Since his detection, it appears, that ſcarcely a perſon of rank in Bruſſels but had been induced to ſupply him with ſums of money under various pretexts. Mrs. Semple reſides at Calais; but the major lived *en famille* with a French woman of exquiſite beauty.

Liſt of Prizes, continued from page 256.

The Vrow Anna Maria, ——, from Falmouth to Genoa, taken by the French, is re-taken by Lord Howe's fleet.

The Cleopatra, Donovan, from Hamburgh for Philadelphia, with hemp, flax, &c. which was taken by a French eighty-gun ſhip on the 24th ult. is re-taken by the Culloden man of war, and arrived at Plymouth.

The Flora, Bruce, from Wilmington to Jamaica, taken by the French, is re-taken by the Spitfire ſloop of war.

Diſpatches from Sir Robert Boyd, governor of Gibraltar, contain an account that four French prizes were ſent in there, which had been captured by his majeſty's cruizers.

The Ruſten Wertz, Anker Mattyſon, from Amſterdam to Surinam, which was taken by l'Impetueux French frigate, is re-taken by the Thalia frigate, Captain Grindall.

The Brutus, Le Conſtance, and Le Neſtor (French ſnows); Les Deux Amies and La St. Domingo, ſhips; and Le Clandenque, a ſchooner; are captured in Bengal river.

The Uranie, ——, of Dunkirk, from the South Seas, is taken by the Swift, Belton, and arrived at Antigua.

The Henry and George, ——, from Hamburgh to Teneriffe, taken by a French man of war, is re-taken by the Weazle ſloop of war.

The Phœnix letter of marque, belonging to Liverpool, has taken and carried into Scilly a large French ſhip, from Bourdeaux to Breſt, laden with flour, wine, &c. &c.

Seven French privateers in the Weſt-Indies are taken by the Britiſh cruizers; four of them are ſent into Barbadoes, and three into Antigua.

The Seaflower cutter, Capt. Loveday, has taken a French privateer, after a ſmart engagement, in which the latter had ſeven men killed and two wounded; and, in company with the Blanche frigate, two days after, took a large privateer, and retook a ſhip and brig, and carried them into Barbadoes.

The Experiment letter of marque, Capt. Naſh, belonging to Liverpool, has taken and carried into Beaumaris, the Tone French merchant-ſhip, from Bourdeaux to Breſt, laden with flour, wine, &c. after a chace of ſix hours and a half.

Government has purchaſed the Re-union French frigate, which was captured by the Creſcent, for 7,500l.

The prize-money due for the Cleopatra, captured by Sir Edward Pellew, will be diſtributed in the preſent month.

GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION OF THE CRETAN WARRIORS.

THE republic of Crete, which is one of the largeſt iſlands in the Mediterranean, has been celebrated by the panegyric of Plato, ſerved Lycurgus as a model for that which he eſtabliſhed in Lacedemon, and was beheld by all Greece with reſpect and admiration. Strabo has thought it not unworthy of his pencil, and has conſecrated the leading features of its conſtitution to laſting fame in his immortal work. It was indeed a ſyſtem of legiſlature whoſe direct tendency was to call forth the buds of virtue in the heart of infancy; to open and expand them in youth; to inſpire man, as he reached maturity, with the love of his country, of glory, and of liberty; and to comfort and ſupport the infirmities of age with the reſpect and eſteem due to the experience and wiſdom of that period of life. It laboured to form affectionate friends, patriotic citizens, and worthy magiſtrates. It made no uſe, however, of a multitude of acts and ſtatutes to produce thoſe ineſtimable advantages. They flowed all from one ſource; the public education of youth, judiciouſly directed. The virtuous examples ſet before youth in the courſe of that education, the illuſtrious deeds which were recited to them with high applauſe, the honours conferred on valour and on noble actions, the opprobrium invariably caſt on vice; theſe were the only means which the Cretan lawgiver made uſe of to form a warlike, humane, and virtuous, nation.

The Cretan government, ſoon after the expulſion of Idomeneus, became ariſtocratical. The power was divided between the nobles and the people. Yet, as the chief employments were occupied by the nobles, they directed the adminiſtration of affairs. Ten magiſtrates were annually elected, by a majority of voices, in the national aſſembly. Theſe were named Coſmoi, and their public office and character were the ſame with thoſe of the Ephori at Sparta. They were the generals of the republic in time of war, and directed all affairs of any importance. They had the right of chooſing certain old men for counſellors. Thoſe old men, to the number of twenty-eight, compoſed the Cretan ſenate. They were choſen from among ſuch as had diſcharged the office of Coſmoi, or had diſtinguiſhed themſelves by extraordinary merit and blameleſs probity. Theſe ſenators continued in office during life, poſſeſſed a weighty influence, and were conſulted in every affair of any importance. This body was a barrier oppoſed by the wiſdom of the legiſlator againſt the ambition of the ten chief rulers. He had impoſed another reſtraint on their power, by limiting the period of their adminiſtration to one year. His foreſight went ſtill farther. The ſuffrages of the people might be obtained by bribery or perſonal influence, and of conſequence their choice might ſometimes fall on a man unworthy of ſo honourable an office. When that happened, he who had been undeſervedly advanced to the dignity of Coſmos was degraded, either in a national aſſembly, or ſimply by the voices of his colleagues. This, doubtleſs, is what Plato alludes to, when he ſays, "Neither the commonwealth, which approaches too near to a monarchical conſtitution, nor that which affects a licentious liberty, is founded on the ſolid baſis of a juſt medium between anarchy and deſpotiſm. O Cretans! O Lacedemonians! by eſtabliſhing yours on firmer foundations, you have avoided thoſe fatal extremes."

Such were the diſtribution of power and the adminiſtration of public affairs in the Cretan government. Its ſimplicity was admirable. A people who were bleſſed with the ſacred enjoyment of liberty, but poſſeſſed not ſufficient knowledge and diſcernment to direct themſelves, elected magiſtrates, to whom they delegated their authority. Thoſe magiſtrates, thus arrayed with ſovereign power, choſe ſenators to aſſiſt and direct their deliberations. Theſe counſellors could neither exact or decide of themſelves: but they held their office for life; and that circumſtance contributed to ſtrengthen their influence and to increaſe their experience. The magiſtrates

ſtrates were animated by the moſt powerful motives to diſtinguiſh themſelves, when in office, by unwearied activity in the public ſervice. On one ſide, they were reſtrained by the fear of degradation; on the other, actuated by the hope of becoming one day members of the national council.

Yet let us enquire what means the Cretan lawgiver uſed to form virtuous citizens. All the Cretans were ſubjected to the power of their magiſtrates; and divided into two claſſes, the adults and the youth. Men arrived at maturity were admitted into the firſt. The ſecond conſiſted of all the young men who were not below the age of ſeventeen. The ſociety of adults ate together in public halls. There rulers, magiſtrates, poor, and rich, ſeated together, partook, without diſtinction, of the ſame ſimple fare. A large bowl, filled with wine and water, which went round the company from one to another, was the only drink that they were allowed. None but the old men had a right to call for more wine. Doubtleſs, that people, ſo celebrated for wiſdom, were not ſtrangers to the power of beauty; for a woman was appointed to preſide at each table. She openly diſtributed the moſt exquiſite meats to thoſe who had diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their valour or wiſdom. That judicious preference was ſo far from exciting envy or jealouſy, that it only prompted every perſon to deſerve it by a brave and prudent conduct. Near where the citizens ſat, two tables were laid, which they named Hoſpitable; all ſtrangers and travellers were entertained at theſe: and there was alſo a particular houſe ſet apart by the public, in which they might ſpend the night.

To ſupply the public expences, every citizen was obliged to bring a tenth part of his annual income into the treaſury. The chief magiſtrates were to take care that every perſon contributed his proportion. In Crete, ſays Ariſtotle, one part of the fruits of the earth, of the produce of the flocks, of the revenues of the ſtate, and of the taxes and cuſtoms, is ſacred to the gods: the other is diſtributed among the members of the community; ſo that men, women, and children, all ſubſiſt at the public expence.

After dinner, the magiſtrates and ſenators uſually ſpent ſome time in deliberating on the affairs of the ſtate; they next recounted the noble deeds which had been done in war, celebrated the courage of their moſt diſtinguiſhed warriors, and animated the youth to heroic valour. Thoſe aſſemblies were the firſt ſchool of the youth. At the age of ſeven, the boy was permitted to handle the bow;—from that time he was admitted into the ſociety of the adults, where he continued till the age of ſeventeen. There, ſitting on the ground, and clothed in a plain and coarſe dreſs, he ſerved the old men, and liſtened, with reſpectful ſilence, to their advice. His young heart was inflamed with the recital of noble deeds in arms, and glowed with ardour to imitate them. He acquired habits of ſobriety and temperance. And, being conſtantly witneſs of illuſtrious examples of moderation, wiſdom, and patriotiſm, the ſeeds of virtue were thus ſown and foſtered in his heart before he attained the uſe of reaſon.

He was early accuſtomed to arms and to fatigue, that he might learn to endure exceſſive heat or cold, to clamber and leap among hills and precipices, and to bear manfully the blows and wounds which he might receive amid the gymnaſtic exerciſes or in battle. But his education was not confined to the gymnaſtic exercies; he was alſo taught to ſing the laws, which were written in verſe, with a certain ſpecies of melody; in order that the charms of muſic might diſpoſe him to learn them with more pleaſure, and might impreſs them more deeply on his heart, and that, if he ſhould ever tranſgreſs them, he might not have the excuſe of ignorance to offer. He next learned hymns in honour of the gods, and poems compoſed in praiſe of heroes. When he reached his ſeventeenth year, he retired from the ſociety of the adults, and became a member of that of the young men.

Here his education was ſtill carried on. He exerciſed himſelf in hunting, wreſtling, and fighting, with his companions.

companions. The lyre played tunes of martial muſic; and he learned to follow exactly the ſounds and meaſure of the muſician. Thoſe ſports and exerciſes were ſometimes attended with danger, becauſe arms of ſteel were frequently made uſe of in them. One dance, in which the youth aſpired moſt ardently to excel, was the Pyrrhic, originally invented in Crete. The performers in that dance were arrayed in complete armour:—they wore a light ſhort coat, which did not fall below the knee, and was bound with a girdle going twice round the waiſt: on their feet and legs were buſkins; above theſe they bore their arms,—and performed various military evolutions to the ſound of muſical inſtruments. "The Lacedemonians and Cretans," ſays Libanius, "cultivated dancing with amazing ardour; they conſidered, that their laws had directed them to practiſe it for the moſt important purpoſes; and it was ſcarcely leſs diſhonourable for a Lacedemonian or Cretan to neglect the military dances, than to deſert his poſt in battle.

Thoſe Cretans who were opulent and high-born were permitted to form ſocieties of young men of their own age. They often ſtrove, with emulation, who ſhould form the moſt numerous ones. The father of the young man who formed one of thoſe ſocieties uſually preſided in it. He had a right to educate thoſe warlike youth, to exerciſe them in running and in hunting, to confer rewards and inflict puniſhments.

When the youth had finiſhed their exerciſes, and attained the legal age, they became members of the claſs of adults; being then conſidered as men, they were permitted to vote in the national aſſemblies, and were intitled to ſtand candidates for any public office. They were then obliged to marry; but did not take home their wives till ſuch time as they were capable of managing their domeſtic concerns.

"The legiſlator (ſays Strabo) had conſidered liberty as the greateſt bleſſing that cities can enjoy. Liberty alone can ſecure the property of the citizens of any ſtate. Slavery either robs them of it, or renders it precarious. The firſt care of nations ſhould therefore be to preſerve their liberty. Concord ſtrengthens and ſupports her empire; ſhe flouriſhes wherever the ſeeds of diſſention are extinguiſhed. Almoſt all thoſe hoſtilities which prevail among nations or individuals ſpring either from an inordinate deſire of wealth or the love of luxury. Introduce, inſtead of thoſe baneful principles, frugality, moderation, and cordiality of conditions; you will thus baniſh envy, hatred, injuſtice, and haughty diſdain." This was what the Cretan lawgiver happily effected. And the community, which was regulated by his wiſe inſtitutions, roſe to glory, opulence, and power; and was honoured with the panegyrics of the moſt celebrated philoſophers of Greece; but the higheſt honour it ever obtained, was that of ſerving Lycurgus as a model for the admirable form of government which he eſtabliſhed at Sparta.

The republic of Crete continued to flouriſh till the age of Julius Cæſar. No other ſtate has enjoyed ſo long a period of ſtrength and grandeur. The legiſlature, regarding liberty as the only ſure baſis of a nation's happineſs, had inſtituted a ſyſtem of laws, the natural tendency of which was, to inſpire men with an ardent paſſion for liberty, and with ſuch virtue and valour as are neceſſary to ſupport and defend it. All the citizens were ſoldiers; all of them were ſkilled in the art of war. The valiant youth of other nations reſorted to Crete, to learn the exerciſes, manœuvres, and evolutions, of the military art, "Philopœmen (ſays Plutarch) being impatient of indolence, and eager to acquire ſkill in arms, embarked for Crete. After ſpending a conſiderable time in the nobleſt exerciſes among that brave people, who were ſkilled in the art of war, and accuſtomed to an auſtere and temperate life, he returned to the Achæans. The knowledge which he had acquired made him ſo eminent among them, that he was immediately appointed general of their cavalry."

On he other hand, the legiſlator, being perſuaded that conqueſts are generally unjuſt and criminal, that they often exhauſt the ſtrength of the victorious nation, and almoſt always

corrupt its manners, endeavoured to preſerve the Cretans from the ambition of conqueſt. The fertility of the iſland abundantly ſupplied their wants. They needed not that commerce ſhould introduce among them the riches of foreign countries, along with which luxury and her train of attendant vices would alſo be introduced; and he knew how to inſpire them with an indifference for ſuch acquiſitions without expreſsly forbidding them. The gymnaſtic exerciſes, which occupied the leiſure of the gallant youths; and pleaſures of the chace; the ardour of friendſhip; the public ſhows, at which all the different orders of the community, both men and women, uſed to aſſemble; the love of equality, order, and their country, with which he inflamed every breaſt; the wiſe inſtitutions, which united a whole nation ſo cloſely that they compoſed but one family;—all theſe ties attached the Cretans to their native iſland: and, finding at home that happineſs which was the object of their wiſhes, they never thought of wandering abroad in ſearch of an imaginary glory, or of extending their empire over other nations. Therefore, from the period at which that ſtate aſſumed a republican form till the time when they were attacked by the arms of Rome, the nation was not once known to ſend an hoſtile force into the territories of any of their neighbours. This inſtance of moderation is unparallelled in hiſtory; no other nation can divide the glory of it with the Cretans. Individuals indeed might leave their country to engage in foreign armies. Thoſe princes and ſtates who knew their valour and ſkill in archery eagerly ſought to take them into their pay; all the neighbouring monarchs were deſirous of having in their armies a body of Cretan archers. Over the whole world none were more celebrated than they for bending the bow. "The arrows of Gortynia (ſays Claudian), aimed from a truſty bow, are ſure to wound, nor ever miſs the deſtined mark." It was this example that animated the Britons, who were afterwards, by many authors, compared to the Cretans, for that dexterity in archery which made them famous in the modern world.

Though the multitude of independent cities which flouriſhed in Crete did not unite their arms to ſubjugate the neighbouring iſlands, and drench them with the blood of their inhabitants; yet they were not ſo wiſe as to live in peace among themſelves. Diſcord often ſtalked among them with her flaming torch. The moſt powerful wiſhed to enſlave the reſt. Sometimes Gnoſſus and Gortynia marched with united banners againſt their neighbours, levelled their fortreſſes, and ſubjected them to their power; at other times they attacked each other with hoſtile violence, and ſaw their braveſt youth periſh amidſt the horrors of civil war. Lyctos and Cydon oppoſed an invincible barrier to their ambition, and preſerved their own liberty. The laſt of theſe cities had acquired ſuch ſtrength and influence, that ſhe held the balance between the rival powers of the iſland. Thoſe wars deſtroyed a number of the cities, and drenched the native country of Jupiter with blood.

To what ſource muſt we attribute thoſe inteſtine diſſentions? One part of the iſland was occupied by the Eteocretes, the original inhabitants; the reſt was peopled with colonies from Athens, Sparta, Argos, and Samos. Perhaps the ancient grudges which had ſubſiſted among thoſe ſtrangers, being ſtill unextinguiſhed in their breaſts, were eaſily rekindled by accident or circumſtances, and inflamed with new fury. We may alſo ſuppoſe, that the moſt powerful among them, exulting in their ſuperiority, would endeavour to take advantage of the weakneſs of the reſt, and diſregard all laws but thoſe of force; beſides, the glowing ardour of the youth, trained to military exerciſes, was ever ready to fly to arms. Such, probably, were the cauſes which fomented diſcord and hoſtility among a people living under the ſame religion, cuſtoms, and laws. Whatever theſe might be, the Cretans, being perſuaded that the firm union of their ſoldiers was eſſential to victory, arrayed the braveſt youths of the army in ſplendid robes, and cauſed them

them to ſacrifice to friendſhip before engaging in battle. In ſome countries it would be very proper to oblige the generals, on ſuch occaſions, to ſacrifice to concord. If ſuch a ſacrifice were performed with ſincerity, it might preſerve their glory unſtained, and prevent ſuch deluges of blood from being waſted without producing any advantages to the ſtate.

Their paſſion for war did not extinguiſh in the breaſts of the Cretans that exquiſite ſenſibility which is the mother and nurſe of the fine arts: "The Cretans (ſays Sozomen) gave an illuſtrious proof of their munificence to genius, by making Homer a preſent of a thouſand pieces of ſilver; and, to perpetuate the memory of this act of generoſity, they recorded it by an inſcription on a public column." In Crete, adds Ptolemy, men are ſtill more deſirous of cultivating their underſtandings than of exerciſing their bodily powers. Often, when diſſentions aroſe, the voice of wiſdom and the charms of poeſy recalled them to reaſon and harmony. Thales of Gortynia, the preceptor of Lycurgus, was one of their moſt celebrated philoſophers. Being both a poet and legiſlator, he made an happy uſe of his abilities and knowledge to extinguiſh among his countrymen the kindling ſparks of diſcord. "His poems were moral diſcourſes in verſe, which recalled the people to concord and ſubmiſſion to the laws. Uſing a regular meaſure, he recommended the auſterity of his ſubject by the inſinuating and powerful charm of ſentiment. So powerful were the effects of his verſes, which addreſſed at once the ears, the heart, and the underſtanding, of his hearers, that their rage was gradually ſoftened. Next, opening their hearts to the love of peace, the advantages of which he deſcribed in glowing colours, they forgot their inteſtine diſſentions, and ranged themſelves around the ſtandard of concord." That ſage is ſaid to have invented tunes for the military dances and for the Cretan Pyrrhic. Men who felt ſo ſtrongly the influence of poetry and muſic could ſcarcely be enemies to pleaſure. Accordingly they had a cuſtom of diſtinguiſhing their fortunate days with white flint ſtones, their unfortunate days with black. At the end of the year they counted the number of their white ſtones, and reckoned that they had lived only ſo many days as were diſtinguiſhed for having been fortunate. They did not think mere exiſtence, without the enjoyment of pleaſure, worthy of the name of life. For this reaſon, they cauſed to be inſcribed on their tombs: "He lived ſo many days; he continued in exiſtence ſo long."

A paſſion for glory is eaſily awaked in a feeling and generous breaſt. The Cretans eagerly repaired to the famous ſolemnities of Greece, and were often crowned at the Olympic, Nemæan, and Pythian, games: others of them were favourites of the muſes, and verſified the predictions of the prophets, or celebrated the glorious deeds of their heroes. Several of them diſtinguiſhed themſelves by hiſtorical compoſitions. At the moſt ancient games, a prize is ſaid to have been beſtowed on the poet who ſang the nobleſt hymn in honour of Apollo: Chryſothemis of Crete ſang and gained the prize.

The ravages of time have deprived us of almoſt all their works; and, if Pindar had not preſerved the memory of ſome of their crowns, we ſhould not know even the names of the conquerors who wore them. The temple of Diana at Epheſus, built by the Cretan Cteſipon and his ſon Metagenes, was not proof againſt the frantic hand of the incendiary. Thoſe ingenious architects had built it on the principles of the Ionic order: to the coſtlineſs of the materials, the elegance of the architecture, the ſymmetry of the parts, and the majeſty and perfection of the whole, they had added ſolidity and ſtrength, without which the reſt muſt have been of ſmall value. Their names have deſcended to poſterity, but the pillars of that monument which has perpetuated their memory have been diſperſed or deſtroyed. Scarcely a veſtige remains of that building which was eſteemed one of the ſeven wonders of the world.

Nations are effaced from the earth like the monuments of their power; and

and after the revolution of ſeveral ages we can ſcarcely trace in their poſterity any remains of their ancient character. Some of them exiſt longer, others ſhorter; but we may almoſt always calculate the period of their duration by the excellence of their laws, and the fidelity with which they ſupport and obey them. The republic of Crete, being eſtabliſhed on a ſolid baſis, knew no foreign maſter for a period of ten centuries. She bravely repelled the attacks of thoſe princes who attempted to enſlave her. At length the time arrived when the warlike and victorious Romans aſpired to the empire of the world, and would ſuffer none but their ſubjects or ſlaves to inhabit within the reach of their arms. Florus does not ſcruple to acknowledge, that the Romans had no other motives for invading Crete, but the ambitious deſire of ſubduing the renowned native country of Jupiter: "If any perſon wiſh to know the reaſons which induced us to attack Crete (ſays he), the true reaſon was our deſire to ſubdue ſo celebrated an iſland. The Cretans had appeared to favour Mithridates, and the Romans thought proper to declare war againſt them on that pretext. Mark Antony, father of the triumvir, attacked them with ſtrong hopes of ſucceſs; but was ſeverely puniſhed for his preſumption and imprudence. The Cretans took a great part of his fleet, hung up his ſoldiers and ſailors on the maſts amid the ſails and cordage, and returned in triumph into their harbour."

The Romans never forgot nor forgave a defeat. As ſoon as the Macedonian war was brought to an happy concluſion, they again took arms againſt the Cretans to revenge their ignominy and loſs. Quintus Metellus was ſent to Crete with a powerful armament. He met with an obſtinate and vigorous reſiſtance. Panarus and Laſthenes, two experienced leaders, collecting a body of 20,000 young warriors, all eager for battle, and of determined courage, employed their arms and arrows ſucceſsfully againſt the Romans, and protracted the fate of Crete for three years. Thoſe conquerors could not make themſelves maſters of the iſland before deſtroying its braveſt warriors. They loſt a a great number of troops, and bought a bloody victory at the price of many a danger and much fatigue. However, their uſual good fortune at length prevailed. The firſt care of the conqueror was to aboliſh the laws of Minos, and to eſtabliſh in their room thoſe of Numa. Strabo, that enlightened philoſopher, complains of this act of ſeverity; and informs us, that in his days the original laws of Crete were no longer in force, becauſe the Romans compelled the conquered provinces to adopt their civil code. To ſecure themſelves ſtill more fully in the poſſeſſion of the iſland, they ſent a powerful colony to Gnoſſus.

From that era to the preſent time, that is, for a period of 1900 years, the Cretans have no longer formed a ſeparate nation, nor made any figure among the ſtates and kingdoms of the world: their noble and ingenuous manners, their arts and ſciences, their valour and their virtues, are no more. They have loſt theſe with the loſs of liberty. So true is it that man is born for himſelf; and that, when deprived of that aid which Nature has deſigned to ſtrengthen and ſupport his weakneſs, the flame of genius and the ardent glow of valour are extinguiſhed in his breaſt; he becomes incapable of vigorous reſolution, and ſinks below the natural virtue and dignity of the ſpecies.

The iſland of Crete, joined with the ſmall kingdom of Cyrene, on the Lybian coaſt, formed a Roman province. It was at firſt governed by a proconſul; a queſtor and an aſſiſtant were afterwards ſent there; at laſt, as Suetonius informs us, it was put under the government of a conſul. This iſland was one of the firſt places in the world that were favoured with the light of the goſpel. St. Paul introduced the Chriſtian faith into Crete; and his diſciple Titus, whom he left there to cheriſh and cultivate that precious plant, became the firſt biſhop of the iſland. In the reign of the emperor Leo, it had twelve biſhops, who were all ſubject to the patriarch

patriarch of Conſtantinople. Conſtantine ſeparated Crete from Cyrené in the new diviſion which he made of the provinces of the empire. Leaving three ſons, Conſtantius, Conſtantine, and Conſtans, he aſſigned Thrace and the eaſtern provinces to the firſt; to the ſecond, the empire of the Weſt; the iſland of Crete, Africa, and Illyria, to the third.

When Michael Balbus ſat on the throne of Conſtantinople, the rebellion of Thomas, which laſted three years, cauſed him to neglect the other parts of the empire. The Agarenians (a people of Arabia), who had conquered the fineſt provinces of Spain, ſeized that opportunity. They fitted out a conſiderable fleet, plundered the Cyclades, attacked the iſland of Crete, and made themſelves maſters of it without oppoſition. In order to ſecure their conqueſt, they built a fortreſs which they named *Khandah*, "intrenchment." From that citadel the barbarians made inroads into the interior parts of the iſland, carrying havock and devaſtation wherever they appeared. By repeated attacks, they ſubdued all the cities in Crete except Cydon. Michael made ſome ineffectual efforts to expel them from Crete. The emperor Baſilius, the Macedonian, was not more ſucceſsful. They defeated him in a bloody battle; but, being vanquiſhed by one of his generals, they were ſubjected to the payment of an annual tribute. At the end of ten years, the Arabians refuſed the tribute. It was reſerved for Nicephorus Phocas, who was afterwards emperor, to deliver this fine iſland from the yoke of the infidels. He landed on the iſland with a numerous army, boldly attacked them, and routed them in various engagements. The Saracens, no longer daring to meet ſo formidable a general in the field, fled for protection to their fortreſſes. Phocas, being plentifully ſupplied with all the warlike machines neceſſary for a ſiege, levelled their walls, and alarmed their hearts with terror. He took their cities and fortreſſes, and drove them into Khandak their metropolis and laſt reſource. In the courſe of nine months he ſubdued the whole iſland, took their king Curup and his lieutenant Aremas priſoners, and re-united to the empire a province which had been 127 years in the hands of the infidels. It remained under the dominion of the Romans till the time when Baldwin count of Flanders, being raiſed to the throne, liberally rewarded the ſervices of Boniface marquis of Montſerrat, by making him king of Theſſalonica, and adding the iſland of Crete to his kingdom. That lord, being more covetous of gold than glory, ſold it to the Venetians in the year 1194; under whom it aſſumed and now bears the name of Candia.

HISTORY OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

[*Concluded from page* 269.]

THE Chineſe method of printing is exceedingly different from ours; and indeed it would be in a manner impoſſible to have moveable types for ſuch a number of characters as their language requires. The whole work which they intend to print is therefore engraved upon blocks of wood; and their method of proceeding is as follows. They firſt employ an excellent writer, who tranſcribes the whole upon very thin paper. The engraver glues each of the leaves of the manuſcript upon a piece of plank made of any hard wood: he then traces over with a graver the ſtrokes of the writing, carves out the characters in relief, and cuts down the intermediate part of the wood. Thus each page of a book requires a ſeparate plank; and the exceſſive multiplication of theſe is no doubt a very great inconvenience, one chamber being ſcarcely ſufficient to preſerve thoſe employed for a ſingle book. The advantages are, that the work is thus free from typographical errors, and the author has no occaſion to correct the proofs. Thus alſo the bookſellers in China have a decided advantage

tage over thoſe of Europe, as they are able by this method of printing to throw off copies according to their ſale, without running the riſk of being ruined by too large an edition. In this method the beauty of the work depends entirely upon the ſkill of the writer previouſly employed. The engravers are exceedingly dextrous, and imitate every ſtroke ſo exactly, that it is ſometimes difficult to diſtinguiſh a printed work from one that is only written. The method of printing in China is not by a preſs as in Europe, as neither their wooden planks nor their ſoft paper could ſuſtain ſo much preſſure. They firſt place the plank level, and then fix it in that poſition. The printer is provided with two bruſhes, and, with the hardeſt, daubs the plank with ink; and one daubing is ſufficient for four or five leaves. After a leaf has been adjuſted upon the plank, the workman takes the ſecond bruſh, which is ſofter than the former, and of an oblong figure, and draws it gently over the paper, preſſing it down a little, that it may receive the ink. The degree of preſſure is to be regulated by the quantity of ink upon the plank: and in that manner one man is able to throw off almoſt 10,000 copies a-day. The ink uſed for printing is different from that formerly deſcribed, and which is uſed in writing. The leaves, on account of the thinneſs of the paper, are printed only upon one ſide; on which account each leaf of a book is double, ſo that the fold ſtands uppermoſt, and the opening is towards the back, where it is ſtitched. Hence the Chineſe books are not cut on the edges, but on the back. They are generally bound in grey paſteboard, which is very neat; and thoſe who wiſh to have them more elegantly done get the paſteboard covered with ſatin, flowered taffety, and ſometimes with gold and ſilver brocade. Their books are neither gilt nor coloured on the edges like ours.

The art of manufacturing ſilk, according to the beſt authorities, was communicated by the Chineſe to the Perſians, and from them to the Greeks. The art has been known in this empire from the remoteſt antiquity; and the breeding of ſilk-worms and making of ſilk was one of the employments even of the empreſſes in very early ages. The moſt beautiful ſilk in the whole empire is that of *Tche-kiang*, which is wrought by the manufactories of Nanking. From theſe are brought all the ſtuffs uſed by the emperor, and ſuch as he diſtributes in preſents to his nobility. A great number of excellent workmen are alſo drawn to the manufactories of Canton by the commerce with Europe and other parts of Aſia. Here are manufactured ribbons, ſtockings, and buttons. A pair of ſilk ſtockings here coſts little more then 6s. ſterling. The quantity of ſilk produced in China ſeems to be almoſt inexhauſtible; the internal conſumption alone being incredibly great, beſides that which is exported in the commerce with Europe and the reſt of Aſia. In this empire all who poſſeſs a moderate fortune wear ſilk clothes; none but the lower claſs of people wearing cotton ſtuffs, which are commonly dyed blue. The principal ſtuffs manufactured by them are plain and flowered gauzes, of which they make ſummer dreſſes; damaſk of all colours; ſtriped and black ſatins; napped, flowered, ſtriped, clouded, and pinked, taffeties; crapes, brocades, pluſh, different kinds of velvet, and a multitude of other ſtuffs unknown in Europe. They make particular uſe of two kinds; one named *touan-tſe*, a kind of ſatin much ſtronger, but which has leſs luſtre, than that of Europe; the other a kind of taffety, of which they make drawers and linings. It is woven exceedingly cloſe, and is yet ſo pliable that it may be rumpled and rubbed between the hands without any creaſe; and, even when waſhed like cotton-cloth, it loſes very little of its luſtre. They manufacture alſo a kind of gold brocades, but of ſuch a ſlight nature that they cannot be worn in clothes: they are made by wrapping fine ſlips of gilt paper round the threads of ſilk.

Porcelain is another great branch of Chineſe manufacture, and employs a vaſt number of workmen. The fineſt is made in a village called *King-te-ching*, in the province of *Kiang-ſi*.

Manufactories

Manufactories have alſo been erected in the provinces of Fokien and Canton, but their produce is not eſteemed: and one which the emperor cauſed to be erected at Peking, in order to be under his own inſpection, miſcarried entirely. The Chineſe divide their porcelain into ſeveral claſſes, according to its different degrees of fineneſs and beauty. The whole of the firſt is reſerved for the uſe of the emperor, ſo that none of it ever comes into the hands of other perſons, unleſs it happen to be cracked or otherwiſe damaged in ſuch a manner as to be unworthy of being preſented to the ſovereign. Among that ſent to the emperor, however, there is ſome porcelain of an inferior quality, which he diſpoſes of in preſents. There is ſome doubt, therefore, whether any of the fineſt Chineſe porcelain was ever ſeen in Europe. Some value, however, is now put upon the European porcelain even by the Chineſe themſelves.

The uſe of glaſs is very ancient in China, though it does not appear that great value was ever put upon this kind of ware, the art of manufacturing it having been frequently loſt and revived again in this empire. They greatly admire the workmanſhip of the European cryſtal, but prefer their own porcelain, which ſtands hot liquors, and is much leſs liable to be broken. The little eſtimation in which this ſubſtance was held, is even mentioned by their own writers in ſpeaking of the falſe pearls, mirrors, and other toys, which were made in former ages. The remembrance of a very large glaſs veſſel, however, which was made in 627, is ſtill preſerved; and of which it was ſaid that a mule could as eaſily enter it as a gnat could enter a pitcher. In order to tranſport this monſtrous veſſel from the place where it was manufactured to the emperor's palace, it was neceſſary to incloſe it in a net, the four corners of which were fixed to four carriages. The ſame indifference with regard to glaſs is ſtill entertained by the preſent emperors; however by glaſs-houſe is eſtabliſhed at Peking, where a number of vaſes and other works are made; and theſe are ſo much the more difficult in the execution, as none of them are blown. This manufactory, as well as many others, is conſidered only as an appendage of the court, deſtined for the purpoſes of pomp and magnificence.

Moſt of the Chineſe medicine is abſolute quackery; their ſkill in anatomy is not only very limited, but mixed with ſuch a number of falſehoods, as render it in a manner abſolutely uſeleſs. Their materia medica conſiſts moſtly of herbs, of which tea is one. To this they aſcribe great and wonderful virtues, eſpecially if it has been gathered on any of the ſummits of a mountain called *Mong-chan*. The only thing regarding this ſcience, which merits any attention, is the method they are ſaid to poſſeſs of diſcovering whether a man has hanged or drowned himſelf, or had that violence committed upon him by others. In order to diſcover this, the body is firſt taken from the earth, and waſhed in vinegar. After this a large fire is kindled in a pit dug on purpoſe, ſix feet long, three wide, and the ſame in depth. This fire is continually augmented, until the ſurrounding earth becomes as hot as an oven; the remaining fire is then taken out, a large quantity of wine is poured into it, and it is covered with a hurdle made of oſier twigs, upon which the body is ſtretched out at full length. A cloth is thrown over both in the form of an arch, in order that the ſteam of the wine may act upon it in every direction. At the end of two hours the cloth is taken off; and, if any blows have been given, they then appear upon the body in whatever ſtate it may be. The Chineſe likewiſe aſſert, that, if the blows given have been ſo ſevere as to occaſion death, this trial makes the marks appear upon the bones, though none of them ſhould be broken or apparently injured. The wine uſed in theſe trials is only a kind of beer made from rice and honey.

With regard to the muſic of the Chineſe, we have the ſame ſtories related as of the Greeks and Egyptians, viz. that in former ages the muſicians could make brute animals leap at the ſound of their inſtruments. Our

author, M. Groſier, indeed, does not quote any Chineſe author who aſſerts that the ancient muſic could make trees dance, or ſtones arrange themſelves into a city; but he quotes them, aſſerting, "that the muſicians could call down ſuperior ſpirits of every age from the etherial regions; raiſe up the manes of departing beings; inſpire men with a love of virtue; and lead them to the practice of their duty." Effects of this ſupernatural kind are attributed to the ſacred muſic by the inſpired writers; as in the caſe of Saul, out of whom an evil ſpirit departed at the ſound of David's harp; and of Eliſha, who was inſpired with the ſpirit of prophecy at the ſound of a muſical inſtrument. It is probable, therefore, that the relations both of the Greeks and Chineſe are founded upon facts of this kind: and we cannot from thence infer, that the muſic of early ages was at all ſuperior to that which followed. According to thoſe who have employed much time in theſe reſearches, the ancient Chineſe were acquainted with the diviſion of the octave into twelve ſemitones; and that before the time of Pythagoras, or even Mercury himſelf: that the lyre of Pythagoras, his invention of the diatonic tetrachords, and the formation of his grand ſyſtem, were merely borrowed from the ancient Chineſe. In ſhort it is maintained, that the Greeks, even Pythagoras himſelf, did nothing but apply to ſtrings that theory which the Chineſe had before formed, and applied to pipes.

At preſent the Chineſe are not acquainted with the uſe of our muſical notes; they have not that diverſity of ſigns which diſtinguiſh the different tones, and the gradual elevation or depreſſion of the voice, nor any thing to point out the various modifications of ſound to produce harmony. They have only a few characters to mark the principal notes; and all the airs they learn are repeated merely by rote. The emperor Kang-hi was therefore greatly aſtoniſhed at the facility with which an European could catch and remember an air the firſt time he heard it. In 1679 he ſent for Fathers Grimaldi and Pereira, to play ſome tunes on the harpſichord, of which they had before made him a preſent. He was greatly entertained with their muſic, but altogether aſtoniſhed when he found that F. Pereira could take down a Chineſe air while the muſicians were playing it, and then repeat the whole without omitting a ſingle note. Having made ſeveral trials of this kind in order to ſatisfy himſelf, he beſtowed the higheſt encomiums upon the European muſic, and the means furniſhed by it to facilitate and leſſen the labour of the memory: "I muſt confeſs (ſays he) that the European muſic is incomparable, and that the like of this F. Pereira is not to be found in my whole kingdom."

The Chineſe have always diſtinguiſhed eight different ſounds; and they believe that nature, in order to produce theſe, formed eight different kinds of ſonorous bodies. The order in which they diſtribute theſe ſounds, and the inſtruments they have contrived to produce them, are, 1. The ſound of ſkin produced by drums. 2. That of ſtone produced by the *king*. The ſound of metal by bells. 4. That of baked earth by the *huien*. 5. Of ſilk by the *kin* and *che*. 6. Of wood by the *yu* and *tchou*. 7. Of the bamboo by the *koan* and different flutes. 8. That of a gourd by the *cheng*.

The drums were originally compoſed of a box made of baked earth, and covered at the extremities with the ſkin of ſome animal; but, on account of the brittleneſs of baked earth, wood was ſoon ſubſtituted in its ſtead. Greater part of theſe inſtruments are ſhaped like our barrels, but ſome are cylindric.

The inſtruments formed of the ſonorous ſtones are called *king*, diſtinguiſhed into *tſe-king*, and *pien-king*. The *tſe-king* conſiſts only of one ſtone, and therefore produces only one note. The *pien-king* conſiſts of 16 ſtones ſuſpended together, and thus forming an inſtrument capable of producing all the tones admitted into the muſic of the ancient Chineſe. They are cut into the form of a carpenter's ſquare; their tone is flattened by diminiſhing their thickneſs, and is made ſharper by abridging their length.

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The bells in China have always been made of a mixture of tin and copper. They are of different ſhapes. and thoſe of the ancients were not round, but flatted, and in the lower part reſembling a creſcent. An inſtrument, correſponding to the *king*, already mentioned, is compoſed of ſixteen bells of different ſizes. Some of their bells uſed on public occaſions are of enormous magnitudes. One at Peking is deſcribed as 13½ feet in diameter, 12½ in height, and 42 in circumference; the weight being upwards of 120,000 pounds. It is uſed for announcing the hours or watches of the night; and its ſound, which is prodigiouſly loud and ſtrong, has a moſt awful effect in the night-time, by reverberating round the walls and the echo of the ſurrounding country. There are ſeveral others likewiſe of vaſt ſize in the ſame city; one of which deſerves greatly to be admired on account of the beautiful characters with which it is covered; and which are as neat and perfect as if traced out by the hand of the fineſt writer, or formed by means of a ſtamp upon wax. F. le Comte tells us, that in all the cities of China there are bells for marking the hours and watches of the night. They generally divide the night into five watches, beginning at ſeven or eight in the evening. On the commencement of the firſt they give one ſtroke, which is repeated a moment after; and thus they continue for two hours till the beginning of the ſecond: they then give two ſtrokes, which are repeated at equal intervals till the beginning of the third watch; and thus they proceed to the fourth and fifth, always increaſing the number of the ſtrokes. For the ſame purpoſe alſo they uſe enormous drums, which they beat in a ſimilar manner. F. Magaillans mentions one at Peking upwards of 40 feet in circumference. The inſtrument called *huien*, which is made of baked earth, is highly eſteemed by the Chineſe on account of its antiquity. It is diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, the great and ſmall; the former being of the ſize of a gooſe's egg; the latter of that of a hen's. It has ſix holes for the notes, and a ſeventh for the mouth. The *kin* and *tche* have been known from the remoteſt antiquity. The *kin* has ſeven ſtrings made of ſilk, and is diſtinguiſhed into three kinds, differing only in ſize. The body is formed of a kind of wood varniſhed black, and its whole length about five feet five inches. The *tche* is about nine feet in length, has 25 ſtrings, and is divided into 25 kinds. F. Amiot aſſures us, that we have no inſtrument in Europe which deſerves to be preferred to it. The inſtruments which emit the ſound of wood are the *tchou*, the *yu*, and the *tchoung-tou*. The firſt is ſhaped like a buſhel, and is beat on the inſide with a hammer; the ſecond, which repreſents a tyger ſquatting, is made to ſound by ſcraping its back gently with a rod; the third is a collection of twelve pieces of boards tied together, which are uſed for beating time, by holding them in the right hand, and knocking them gently againſt the palm of the left. Many inſtruments are conſtructed of the bamboo. Theſe conſiſt of pipes joined together, or ſeparate, and pierced with more or fewer holes. The principal of all theſe wind inſtruments is the *cheng*, which emits the ſound of a gourd. This is formed by cutting off the neck of a gourd, and reſerving only the lower part. To this a cover is fitted, having as many holes as are equal to the number of ſounds required. In each of theſe holes a pipe made of bamboo is fixed, and ſhorter or longer according to the tone intended. The mouth of the inſtrument is formed of another pipe ſhaped like the neck of a gooſe; which is fixed to the gourd on one ſide, and ſerves to convey the air to all the pipes it contains. The ancient *cheng* varied in the number of their pipes; thoſe uſed at preſent have only thirteen.

The painting of the Chineſe is undoubtedly inferior to that of the Europeans, though we are not by any means to judge of the abilities of the painters of this empire by the performances which are brought to Europe. M. Groſier remarks, that the works of the eminent Chineſe painters are never brought to Canton, becauſe they cannot find purchaſers among

the European merchants. The latter delight only in obſcene pictures, which are not permitted by government, nor indeed will any artiſt of character execute them, though they prevail upon ſome of the inferior daubers to gratify them in this reſpect. It ſeems, however, to be univerſally agreed, that the Chineſe have no notion of correctneſs or perſpective, and little knowledge of the proportions of the human body, though it cannot be denied that they excel in painting flowers and animals. In theſe they prize themſelves in a ſcrupulouſly exact imitation of nature, inſomuch that it is no uncommon thing to hear a painter aſk his pupil how many ſcales there are between the head and tail of a carp. Painting was formerly much eſteemed in China, but has now fallen into diſrepute on account of its political inutility. The cabinets and galleries of the emperor, however, are filled with European paintings, and the celebrated artiſts Caſtiglioni and Attiret were both employed; but their offer of erecting a ſchool of painting was rejected, leſt they ſhould by this means revive the taſte for that art which it had been formerly thought prudent to ſuppreſs. Painting in freſco was known in China long before the Chriſtian æra; and, like the Grecians, the Chineſe boaſt much of their celebrated painters of antiquity. Thus we are told of a door painted by Fan-hien, which was ſo perfect an imitation, that the people who entered the temple where it was attempted to go out by it, unleſs prevented by thoſe who had ſeen it before. The preſent emperor has in his park an European village painted in freſco, which produces the moſt agreeable deception. The remaining part of the wall repreſents a landſcape and little hills, which are ſo happily blended with the diſtant mountains, that nothing can be conceived more agreeable. This was the production of Chineſe painters, and executed from deſigns ſketched out for them.

Engraving in three, four, or five, colours, is very ancient among the Chineſe, and was known in this empire long before its diſcovery in Europe.

Sculpture is very little known in this empire; nor is there a ſingle ſtatue in any of the ſquares or public edifices of Peking, not even in the emperor's palace. The only real ſtatues to be met with in the empire are thoſe which, for the ſake of ceremonious diſtinction, are uſed to ornament the avenues leading to the tombs of princes and men of great rank; or thoſe that are placed near the emperor's coffin, and that of his ſons and daughters in the interior part of the vault, where their remains are depoſited.

The Chineſe architecture is entirely different from that of the Greeks or Romans: but nevertheleſs has certain proportions of its own, and a beauty peculiar to itſelf. The habitations of the emperor are real palaces, and announce in a ſtriking manner the majeſty and grandeur of the maſter who inhabits them. All the miſſionaries who had acceſs to the inſide of the emperor's palace at Peking, agreed, that if each of its parts, taken ſeparately, does not afford ſo much delight to the eye as ſome pieces of the grand architecture of Europe, the whole preſents a ſight ſuperior to any thing they had ever ſeen before. In the Chineſe architecture, when a pillar is two feet in diameter at the baſe, its height muſt be 14 feet; and by meaſures of this kind the height of every building is determined. Almoſt all the houſes and buildings in China are conſtructed of wood. One reaſon of this may be the dread of earthquakes; but, beſides this, ſuch buildings are rendered eligible by the heat and dampneſs of the ſouthern provinces, and the exceſſive cold in the northern, which would render ſtone houſes almoſt uninhabitable. Even at Peking, where the rains are but of ſhort duration, it is found neceſſary to cover the ſmall marble ſtair-caſes belonging to the imperial palace with pieces of felt: the humidity of the air moiſtens and ſoaks into every thing. During winter the cold is ſo exceedingly ſevere, that no window can be opened to the north; and water continues conſtantly frozen to the depth of a foot and a half for more than three months.

months. For the ſame reaſons a variety of ſtories are not uſed in the Chineſe buildings; as neither a ſecond nor third ſtory would be habitable during the great heats of ſummer or the rigorous cold of winter. Though Peking is ſituated in the northern part of the empire, the heat there, during the dog-days, is ſo intolerably ſcorching, that the police obliges tradeſmen and ſhopkeepers to ſleep in the open air in the piazzas of their houſes, leſt they ſhould be ſtifled by retiring into their inner apartments. The habitations of people of rank, or of thoſe in eaſy circumſtances, generally conſiſt of five large courts, incloſed with buildings on every ſide. The method of building with ſeveral ſtories was, however, followed for ſeveral centuries, when the court reſided in the ſouthern provinces; and the taſte for this kind of building was carried to ſuch an height, that immenſe edifices were erected from 150 to 200 feet in height, and the pavilions or towers at the extremities roſe upwards of 300 feet. This kind of building, however, at length became diſguſting; though either to preſerve the remembrance of it, or for the ſake of variety, there are ſtill ſome buildings to be ſeen ſeveral ſtories high in palaces belonging to the emperor.

A multiplicity of bridges are rendered neceſſary in China by the vaſt number of canals and rivers which interſect the empire. Anciently, however, the Chineſe bridges were much more ingenious as well as magnificent than they are at preſent. Some of them were ſo contrived that they could be erected in one day to ſupply the place of others which might happen to be broken down, or for other purpoſes. At that time they had bridges which derived their name from their figure; as *reſembling the rainbow*, *draw-bridges*, *bridges to move with pullies*, *compaſs-bridges*, &c. with many others entirely unknown at preſent. The building of bridges indeed was once a luxurious folly of the emperors; ſo that they were multiplied from whim or caprice, without any neceſſity and without uſe. Still, however, many of them are extremely beautiful and magnificent. The arches of ſome are very lofty and acute, with eaſy ſtairs on each ſide, the ſteps of which are not quite three inches in thickneſs, for the greater facility of aſcending and deſcending: others have no arches, but are compoſed of large ſtones, ſometimes 18 feet in length, placed tranſverſely upon piles like planks. Some of theſe bridges are conſtructed of ſtone, marble, or brick; others of wood; and ſome are formed of a certain number of barks joined together by very ſtrong iron chains. Theſe are known by the name of floating-bridges, and ſeveral of them are to be ſeen on the large rivers Kiang and Hoang-ho.

For ſeveral centuries the Chineſe have made no progreſs in ſhip-building. Their veſſels have neither mizen, bowſprit, nor top-maſt. They have only a main and fore-maſt, to which is ſometimes added a ſmall top-gallant maſt. The main maſt is placed almoſt in the ſame part of the deck as ours; but the fore-maſt ſtands much farther forward. The latter is to the former in the proportion of two to three; and the main-maſt is generally two-thirds of the length of the veſſel. They uſe mats for ſails, ſtrengthening them with whole bamboos equal in length to the breadth of the ſail, and extended acroſs it at the diſtance of a foot from one another. Two pieces of wood are fixed to the top and bottom of the ſail; the upper ſerves as a ſail-yard; and the lower, which is about five or ſix inches in thickneſs, keeps the ſail ſtretched when it is neceſſary to hoiſt or lower it. This kind of ſail may be folded or unfolded like a ſcreen. For caulking their veſſels they do not uſe pitch, but a particular kind of gum mixed with lime, which forms a compoſition of ſuch excellent quality that one or two wells in the hold are ſufficient to keep the veſſel dry. They have not yet adopted the uſe of pumps, and therefore draw up the water with buckets. Their anchors are made of the hard wood called *iron-wood*, which they ſay is much ſuperior to the metal, becauſe the latter ſometimes bend, but the former never do. The Chineſe pretend to have

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been the firſt inventors of the mariner's compaſs, but ſeem to have little inclination to improve ſuch an important machine: however, they are well acquainted with the art of manœuvring a veſſel, and make excellent coaſting pilots, though they are bad ſailors in an open ſea.

HISTORY OF ANCIENT HAIR-DRESSING.

THE hair in all ages has been conſidered as an ornament, or as an enſign of dignity or of religion. By the Jews hair was worn naturally long, juſt as it grew; but the prieſts had theirs cut every fortnight, while they were in waiting at the temple; they made uſe of no razors, however, but ſciſſars only. The Nazarites, while their vow continued, were forbidden to touch their heads with a razor.

The falling of the hair, or a change of its colour, was regarded amongſt the Hebrews as a ſign of the leproſy. Black hair was eſteemed by them as the moſt beautiful. Abſalom's hair was cut once a-year, and is ſaid to have weighed 200 ſhekels, by the king's weight, which is about 31 ounces.

The hair of both Jewiſh and Grecian women engaged a principal ſhare of their attention, and the Roman ladies ſeem to have been no leſs curious with reſpect to theirs. They generally wore it long, and dreſſed it in a variety of ways, ornamenting it with gold, ſilver, pearls, &c. On the contrary, the men amongſt the Greeks and Romans, and amongſt the later Jews, wore their hair ſhort, as may be collected from books, medals, ſtatues, &c. This formed a principal diſtinction in dreſs between the ſexes. This obſervation illuſtrates a paſſage in St. Paul's epiſtle to the Corinthians, (1 Cor. xi. 14, 15.)

St. Paul forbids the Corinthian women, when praying by divine inſpiration, to have their hair diſhevelled; probably becauſe this made them reſemble the heathen prieſteſſes, when actuated by the pretended influence of their gods.

Amongſt the Greeks, both ſexes, a few days before marriage, cut off and conſecrated their hair as an offering to their favourite deities. It was alſo cuſtomary among them to hang the hair of the dead on the doors of their houſes previous to interment. They likewiſe tore, cut off, and ſometimes ſhaved, their hair, when mourning for their deceaſed relations or friends, which they laid upon the corpſe, or threw into the pile to be conſumed together with the body. The ancients imagined that no perſon could die till a certain lock of hair was cut off; and this act they ſuppoſed was performed by the inviſible hand of death, or Iris, or ſome other meſſenger of the gods. This hair, thus cut off, they fancied conſecrated the perſon to the infernal deities, under whoſe juriſdiction the dead were ſuppoſed to be. It was a ſort of firſt fruits which ſanctified the whole.

Whatever was the faſhion, with reſpect to the hair, in the Grecian ſtates, ſlaves were forbidden to imitate the freemen. The hair of the ſlaves was always cut in a particular manner, which they no longer retained after they procured their freedom.

It was eſteemed a notable honour anong the ancient Gauls to have long hair, and hence came the appellation *Gallia comata*. For this reaſon Julius Cæſar, upon ſubduing the Gauls, made them cut off their hair as a token of ſubmiſſion.—It was with a view to this, that ſuch as afterwards quitted the world, to go and live in cloiſters, procured their hair to be ſhaven off; to ſhew that they bade adieu to all earthly ornaments, and made a vow of perpetual ſubjection to their ſuperiors.

Gregory of Tours aſſures us, that, in the royal family of France, it was a long time the peculiar mark and privilege of kings and princes of the blood to wear long hair, artfully dreſſed and curled: every body elſe was obliged to be polled, or cut round, in ſign of inferiority and obedience. Some writers aſſure us, that there were different cuts for all the different qualities

qualities and conditions; from the prince who wore it at full length, to the ſlave or villain who was quite cropt.—To cut off the hair of a ſon of France, under the firſt race of kings, was to declare him excluded from the right of ſucceeding to the crown and reduced to the condition of a ſubject.

In the eighth century, it was the cuſtom of people of quality to have their children's hair cut the firſt time by perſons they had a particular honour and eſteem for: who, in virtue of this ceremony, were reputed a ſort of ſpiritual parents or godfathers thereof: though this practice appears to have been more ancient; inaſmuch as we read, that Conſtantine ſent the pope the hair of his ſon Heraclius, as a token that he deſired him to be his adoptive father.

The parade of long hair became ſtill more and more obnoxious in the progreſs of Chriſtianity, as ſomething utterly inconſiſtent with the profeſſion of perſons who bore the croſs. Hence numerous injunctions and canons to the contrary.—Pope Anicetus is commonly ſuppoſed to have been the firſt who forbade the clergy to wear long hair: but the prohibition is of an older ſtanding in the churches of the eaſt; and the letter wherein that decree is written is of a much later date than that pope.—The clerical tonſure is related by Iſidore Hiſpalenſis as of apoſtolical inſtitution.

Long hair was anciently held ſo odious, that there is a canon ſtill extant of the year 1096, importing, that ſuch as wore long hair ſhould be excluded coming into church while living, and not be prayed for when dead. We have a furious declamation of Luitprand againſt the emperor Phocas, for wearing long hair, after the manner of the other emperors of the eaſt, all except Theophilas, who, being bald, enjoined all his ſubjects to ſhave their heads.

The French hiſtorians and antiquaries have been very exact in recording the head of hair of their ſeveral kings. Charlemagne wore it very ſhort; his ſon ſhorter; Charles the Bald had none at all. Under Hugh Capet it began to appear again: this the eccleſiaſtics took in dudgeon, and excommunicated all who let their hair grow. Peter Lombard expoſtulated the matter ſo warmly with Charles the Young, that he cut off his hair; and his ſucceſſors for ſome generations wore it very ſhort.—A profeſſor of Utrecht, in 1650, wrote expreſsly on the queſtion, Whether it be lawful for men to wear long hair? and concluded for the negative.—Another divine, named Reves, who had written for the affirmative, replied to him.

The ancient Britons were extremely proud of the length and beauty of their hair, and were at much pains in dreſſing and adorning their heads. Some of them carried their fondneſs for and admiration of their hair to an extravagant height. It is ſaid to have been the laſt and moſt earneſt requeſt of a young warrior, who was taken priſoner and condemned to be beheaded, that no ſlave might be permitted to touch his hair, which was remarkably long and beautiful, and that it might not be ſtained with his blood. We hardly ever meet with a deſcription of a fine woman or beautiful man, in the poems of Oſſian, but their hair is mentioned as one of their greateſt beauties. Not contented with the natural colour of their hair, which was commonly fair or yellow, they made uſe of certain waſhes to render it ſtill brighter. One of theſe waſhes was a compoſition of lime, the aſhes of certain vegetables, and tallow. They made uſe of various arts alſo to make the hair of their heads grow thick and long; which laſt was not only eſteemed a great beauty, but was conſidered as a mark of dignity and noble birth. Boadicea, queen of the Britons, is deſcribed by Dio with very long hair, flowing over her ſhoulders, and reaching down below the middle of her back. The Britons ſhaved all their beards except their upper lips, the hair of which they, as well as the Gauls, allowed to grow to a very inconvenient length.

In after-times, the Anglo-Saxons and Danes alſo conſidered fine hair as one of the greateſt beauties and ornaments of their perſons, and were at

no

no little pains in dreſſing it to advantage. Young ladies before marriage wore their hair uncovered and untied, flowing in ringlets over their ſhoulders; but, as ſoon as they were married, they cut it ſhorter, tied it up, and put on a head-dreſs of ſome kind or other according to the prevailing faſhion. To have the hair entirely cut off was ſo great a diſgrace, that it was one of the greateſt puniſhments inflicted on thoſe women who were guilty of adultery. The Daniſh ſoldiers, who were quartered upon the Engliſh in the reigns of Edgar the Peaceable and of Ethelred the Unready, were the beaux of thoſe times, and were particularly attentive to the dreſſing of their hair; which they combed at leaſt once every day, and thereby captivated the affections of the Engliſh ladies. The clergy, both ſecular and regular, were obliged to ſhave the crowns of their heads, and keep their hair ſhort, which diſtinguiſhed them from the laity; and ſeveral canons were made againſt their concealing their tonſure, or allowing their hair to grow long. The ſhape of this clerical tonſure was the ſubject of long and violent debates between the Engliſh clergy on the one hand and thoſe of the Scots and Picts on the other; that of the former being circular, and that of the latter only ſemicircular. It appears very plainly, that long flowing hair was univerſally eſteemed a great ornament; and the tonſure of the clergy was conſidered as an act of mortification and ſelf-denial, to which many of them ſubmitted with reluctance, and endeavoured to conceal as much as poſſible. Some of them who affected the reputation of ſuperior ſanctity inveighed with great bitterneſs againſt the long hair of the laity; and laboured earneſtly to perſuade them to cut it ſhort, in imitation of the clergy. Thus the famous St. Wulſtan, biſhop of Worceſter, is ſaid to have declaimed with great vehemence againſt luxury of all kinds, but chiefly againſt long hair, as moſt criminal and moſt univerſal: "The Engliſh (ſays William of Malmſbury in his life of St. Wulſtan) were very vicious in their manners, and plunged in luxury, through the long peace which they had enjoyed in the reign of Edward the Confeſſor. The holy prelate Wulſtan reproved the wicked of all ranks with great boldneſs; but he rebuked thoſe with the greateſt ſeverity who were proud of their long hair. When any of thoſe vain people bowed their heads before him to receive his bleſſing, before he gave it he cut a lock of their hair with a little ſharp knife, which he carried about him for that purpoſe; and commanded them, by way of penance for their ſins, to cut all the reſt of their hair in the ſame manner. If any of them refuſed to comply with this command, he denounced the moſt dreadful judgments upon them; reproached them for their effeminacy; and foretold, that, as they imitated women in the length of their hair, they would imitate them in their cowardice when their country was invaded;—which was accompliſhed at the landing of the Normans."

This continued to be long a topic of declamation among the clergy, who even repreſented it as one of the greateſt crimes, and moſt certain marks of reprobation. Anſelm archbiſhop of Canterbury went ſo far as to pronounce the then terrible ſentence of excommunication againſt all who wore long hair, for which pious zeal he is very much commended. Serlo, a Norman biſhop, acquired great honour by a ſermon which he preached before Henry I. in 1104, againſt long and curled hair, with which the king and all his courtiers were ſo much affected, that they conſented to reſign their flowing ringlets of which they had been ſo vain. The prudent prelate gave them no time to change their minds, but immediately pulled a pair of ſheers out of his ſleeve, and performed the operation with his own hand. Another incident happened about twenty-five years after, which gave a temporary check to the prevailing fondneſs for long hair. It is thus related by a cotemporary hiſtorian: "An event happened, A. D. 1129, which ſeemed very wonderful to our young gallants; who, forgetting that they were men, had transformed themſelves into women by the length of their hair. A certain knight, who was very proud of his long luxuriant hair,

hair, dreamed that a perſon ſuffocated him with its curls. As ſoon as he awoke from his ſleep, he cut his hair to a decent length. The report of this ſpread over all England, and almoſt all the knights reduced their hair to the proper ſtandard. But this reformation was not of long continuance; for in leſs than a year all who wiſhed to appear faſhionable returned to their former wickedneſs."

Almoſt the only diſeaſe of the hair, beſides the remarkable one called *plica polonica*, is its falling off, or *baldneſs*. For this many remedies have been recommended, but ſcarcely any of them can be depended upon. The juice of burdock, and the lixivial ſalts of vine-aſhes, are ſaid to be efficacious; alſo the powder of hermodactyls, and the decoction of box-wood. Remarkable inſtances of the efficacy of this laſt have often been experienced. Some authors give inſtances of the hair changing its colour in a ſhort time, through grief, or by reaſon of a fright, &c.

The Greeks, and, after their example, the Romans, wore falſe hair.

Hair makes a very conſiderable article in commerce, eſpecially ſince the faſhion of falſe hair has ſo much obtained. The hair of the growth of the northern countries, as England, &c. is valued much beyond that of the more ſouthern ones, as Italy, Spain, the ſouth parts of France, &c. —However, moſt of the hair uſed in this country by the wig-makers, and for falſe queues, &c. &c. is brought to us from France, where many people promote the growth of their hair with uncommon care for the purpoſe of ſelling it from time to time.—— The merit of good hair conſiſts in its being well fed, and neither too coarſe nor too ſlender; the bigneſs rendering it leſs ſuſceptible of the artificial curl, and diſpoſing it rather to frizzle; and the ſmallneſs making its curl of too ſhort duration. Its length ſhould be about 25 inches; the more it falls ſhort of this, the leſs value it bears.

The ſcarceneſs of grey and white hair has introduced methods of reducing other colours to this. This is done by ſpreading the hair to bleach on the graſs like linen, after firſt waſhing it out in a lixivious water. This lye, with the force of the ſun and air, brings the hair to ſo perfect a whiteneſs, that the moſt experienced perſon may be deceived therein; there being ſcarcely any way of detecting the artifice, but by boiling and drying it, which leaves the hair of the colour of a dead-walnut-tree leaf.

There is alſo a method of dying hair with biſmuth, which renders ſuch white hair as borders too much upon the yellow of a bright ſilver colour: boiling is the proof of this too, the biſmuth not being able to ſtand it.

Hair may be alſo changed from a red, grey, or other diſagreeable colour, to a brown or deep black, by a ſolution of ſilver. The liquors ſold under the name of *hair-waters* are at bottom no more than ſolutions of ſilver in aqua-fortis, largely diluted with water, with the addition perhaps of other ingredients which contribute nothing to their efficacy. The ſolution ſhould be fully ſaturated with the ſilver, that there may be no more acid in it than is neceſſary for holding the metal diſſolved; and, beſides dilution with water, a little ſpirit of wine may be added for the further dulcification of the acid. It muſt be obſerved, that for diluting the ſolution, diſtilled water, or pure rain-water, muſt be uſed; the common ſpring-waters turning it milky, and precipitating a part of the diſſolved ſilver. It is to be obſerved alſo, that, if the liquor touches the ſkin, it has the ſame effect on it as on the matter to be ſtained, changing the part moiſtened with it to an indelible black. Hair may alſo be dyed of any colour, in the ſame manner as wool.

ACCOUNT of the unfortunate SHIPWRECK of Captain JOHNSTON, of the ſhip COMMERCE, on the coaſt of Arabia. Written by himſelf.

ON the 24th of April laſt, I took command of the ſhip Commerce, then in Madras roads, and bound for Bombay. We attempted at firſt to gain a paſſage along the coaſt of Malabar, but, finding that impracticable, ſtretched to the ſouthward, conformably to our directions. We then

ſtood to the northward, with ſuch a continued ſeries of cloudy weather, that intervals of five or ſix days ſometimes paſſed without obſervations, when at length, to our great aſtoniſhment, we found ourſelves to the eaſtward of the Maldives, made the Malabar coaſt in 10 degrees lat. 600 miles eaſt of our longitude, as per account.

The wind, ſtill unfavourable, induced us a ſecond time for a ſouthern paſſage—and run as far as 62 deg. eaſt (London); but, as we could not aſcertain by azimuth more than three deg. variation, we ſtill ſuppoſed that the current had ſwept us ſome degrees to the eaſtward; under this impreſſion, after we had paſſed the parallel of the north extremity of the Lacadives, we ſteered north-north-eaſt, and on the 10th of July, about midnight, got aground in 30 fathoms, then in lat. 17. 30. under the firm aſſurance of being on the Malabar coaſt, and hauled up north-north-weſt for Bombay. I was upon deck until two o'clock A. M. and went down to the cabin for a couple of hours reſt, deſiring to be called at four—and ordered the lead to be hove every half hour during the interval. At a quarter before four, I heard the ſhip ſtrike, and before I could get upon deck ſhe was hard and faſt among the rocks, and, to our ſurpriſe and ſorrow, found ourſelves on the coaſt of Arabia, ſomething to the northward of Cape Chancely.

The rudder ſoon gave way; we carried out notwithſtanding an anchor, and uſed all poſſible means to get her off, but to no purpoſe, for ſoon after ſhe bulged and filled—we then hoiſted out the boats, and went towards ſhore, not being more than two miles diſtant.

The ſavages came down, but appeared ſo anxious to have us on-ſhore, that we apprehended ſome bad intention, and did not land; on reporting this to the owners on my return (two of whom were in the ſhip), it was concluded on, to take to the boats, and try the paſſage by ſea for Muſcat, the three boats taking us all with great eaſe. The wind alſo was fair and moderate, and the water ſmooth; the whole crew conſiſted of twenty whites and thirteen black men. We ſailed along ſhore all the next day, but at night ſaw breakers that were judged impoſſible to weather, and anchored in thirteen fathoms.

Before day, there aroſe ſo heavy a ſwell, that we were obliged to lighten the boats: and, at day-break, came on a hard gale of wind, with a ſea ſo confuſed and dangerous, that we had no other alternative but to cut and run aſhore, though at the imminent riſk of our lives, from the high and broken ſurf. The long boat filled with water, but not until ſhe had reached the ſhore; the prinnace went over ſtern foremoſt, before ſhe was fairly in the ſurf, and had three men drowned—all got ſafe on-ſhore from the long boat—the yawl I had cut adrift in the night, and taken the men out.

We had juſt time to get a few clothes and proviſions out of the water, and erect a tent, when the ſavages came down armed, and plundered us of every thing, except ſuch ſimple covering to each as appeared to them not worth taking. Notwithſtanding their booty was very valuable, they drove us off in the moſt forlorn plight. Without any proviſions, fire-work, and half-naked, we ſet forward on the land-paſſage for Muſcat, through the moſt dreary and diſmal country ever trodden by human footſteps.

The barbarous treatment we met with from the Arabs, the dreadful precipices we had to mount and deſcend, the gloomy deſerts to croſs, the torments of bare feet, ſharp rocks and thorns, ſcorching ſun, hunger, thirſt, and fatigue inceſſant, were ſuch, that the ſtrongeſt puſhed forward, and ſelf-preſervation overcame ſenſibility for thoſe left behind;—many of whom muſt have fallen victims to this fatal and toilſome journey—a journey never before exceeded in miſery, if we except the unfortunate outcaſts of the ſhip Groſvenor.

I arrived at Muſcat with five white men, and one black, in a weak and ſickly condition. The two owners, Meſſrs. Williams and Seaver, and the other whites, I much fear, will never more be heard of.

HINTS

HINTS FOR THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

[Tranſlated from the SWEDISH.]

IT is a principle in the ſtudy of hiſtory to give the preference to thoſe authors who lived in, or immediately ſucceeding, the times of which they wrote; and of theſe the beſt editions are requiſite.—Thoſe which are called *editio princeps*, or firſt editions, are frequently as expenſive as they are of little value, except to ſome antiquated book-worm in order to complete his duſty collection; or to a pedant, who may now and then uſe them in his diſputes with his learned brethren of the ſchools. Not that we would by any means be underſtood by our readers intirely to diſapprove of theſe diſputes in matters of mere erudition: we only ſay, from experience, that thoſe old editions are rather deſirable in a public library, which is open in every one, than in a private collection, intended only for the uſe and entertainment of the perſon to whom it belongs. The well-known neat editions, *in uſum Delphini*, which were printed by command of Louis XIV. with notes written by ſome of the moſt learned men of thoſe times, are, beyond diſpute, valuable; yet they are not without exception the beſt. The command of a king does not always imprint the ſtamp of excellence upon the works of the learned: every reader praiſes or condemns according to his own judgment, and the character of the book is determined by the majority of voices.

We ſhall here preſent the young ſtudent with a few thoughts relative to thoſe hiſtorians which moſt deſerve his attention; and at the ſame time will point out ſome of the beſt editions, to aſſiſt a gentleman in forming his library.

We ſhall begin with the Jewiſh hiſtory, a conſiderable part of which the reader is no doubt acquainted with by reading the Bible; but to ſpeak of the various editions of the ſacred writings would alone by far exceed the compaſs we have preſcribed to ourſelves in this eſſay.—The Bible printed at Mentz, which was the firſt produce of the preſs, is the moſt ſcarce, and is on that account generally ſold for upwards of two hundred pounds.—Robert Stephens's Bible, which was printed at Paris in the year 1540 in folio, is remarkable from the printers having offered a reward for every fault of the preſs that any one ſhould diſcover in it. A Daniſh Bible was publiſhed about forty years ago, which was thought to come nearer to the original than any one extant, and is on that account well worth the attention of every one converſant in that language.

Next to the authority of the Bible, the moſt ancient and moſt famous Jewiſh hiſtorian, as well as the moſt eſteemed, is undoubtedly Joſephus. He was born in the reign of Caligula. He was a Jew, a deſcendant of the Maccabees, and of the phariſaic ſect. The Galileans choſe him for their leader, and he was taken priſoner by Veſpaſian. He was preſent at the ſiege of Jeruſalem; and conſequently an eye-witneſs, in general, of the facts he has related in his Hiſtory of the Wars of the Jews. He died, a citizen of Rome, in the reign of the emperor Domitian; and was called, even during his life-time, the Grecian Livy.—There is a good edition of his works printed at Amſterdam in 1726, 2 vol. folio, Greek and Latin, with notes by Hudſon, Bernard, Gronovius, Spanheim, and others.

Joſephus Gorionides, or Hebraicus, was alſo by birth a Jew; he lived in the ninth century.—The beſt edition of his works was publiſhed at Gotha in 1707, 2 vols. quarto, Greek and Latin, with Breithaupt's notes.

The hiſtory of the times immediately ſucceeding has been collected by different writers, as chance and opportunity happened to preſent them with materials.

Our countryman Mr. Pococke, being perfectly acquainted with the oriental languages, and having reſided many years at Aleppo, brought along

along with him, at his return, various Syriac and Arabic MSS. which he afterwards tranſlated into Latin: the principal of which is his *Gregorii Albrepharagii Hiſtoria Dynaſtiarum orientalium*, with Pococke's own notes, printed at Oxford in 1663 and 1672, in 2 vol. quarto. He died in 1691.

We are told that Dictys Cretenſis, Dares Phrygius, and Joſephus Aſcanius, compoſed a hiſtory of their own times; but they certainly were not the authors of that Hiſtory of the Trojan War which is generally aſcribed to them; there is no doubt but it had its birth in Italy many years after they were dead.—The laſt and beſt edition was printed at Amſterdam in 1702, with notes by Madame Dacier and Sam. Dreſini, and with many impreſſions of medals, &c. Madame Dacier has tranſlated Dares Phrygius ſeparately into French.

Reinerius Reineccius, profeſſor at Frankfort, died in the year 1591. The world is greatly obliged to the labours of this learned and indefatigable man for rendering the ſtudy of chronology leſs intricate. In conſequence of his unwearied reſearches into the dark abyſs of antiquity, he has left behind him, among other things, theſe principal works: *Familiæ Regum Ponticorum & Boſphoranorum ex ſtirpe Archæmenidarum—Familiæ Regum Macedoniæ—Familiæ Arſacidarum*; *Lipſ.* 1571, 4*to.*——Alſo, *Syntagma Heroicum trium priorum Monarchiarum. Helmſtadii*, 1597, 3 *vols. fol.*

We ſhall now lead the reader from theſe times of obſcurity to the more enlightened period of Grecian hiſtory.

Pauſanias, famous for his learning and eloquence, ended his days at Rome, in the happy reign of Marcus Aurelius, at a very great age. There it was that he finiſhed his Deſcription of Greece; in which, having gone through the more early ages, he comprehends every thing relating to the country itſelf, and its peculiar fate, down to the times in which he wrote. —His *Deſcriptio Græciæ* was printed at Venice in 1516, fol. but the Leipſic edition of 1696, on account of its being enriched with notes by Xylander, Sylburg, and Kuhn, is certainly the moſt uſeful as well as the moſt entertaining.

Herodotus, one of the oldeſt and moſt venerable among the hiſtorians, lived almoſt 500 years before Chriſt. His little deſire of advancement, the knowledge he acquired by travelling, the ſteadineſs of his manner in writing, his honeſty in diſcovering the grounds upon which his relations are founded, are all ſufficient reaſons why he ſhould now be believed, as he was beloved and honoured during his life. He had many enemies; but his virtues were proof againſt all their attempts. The peruſal of this author is productive of much ſatisfaction, both on account of the ſubject and the ſtyle. He treats chiefly of the wars between the Greeks and Perſians from the reign of Cyrus to the time of Xerxes, frequently including the hiſtory of other nations.—The beſt edition of his works is that printed at Leyden in 1715 in folio.

Thucydides, by birth an Athenian, and a Thracian general, was, by plots and falſe accuſations of his enemies, condemned to a twenty-years baniſhment; which time he employed in writing a hiſtory of the war between Athens and Sparta; but was not able to carry it farther than within ſix years of its concluſion; for his hiſtory comprehends only one and twenty of the twenty-ſeven years which the Peloponneſian war continued. In his younger days he was a very attentive auditor to Herodotus, when he uſed to read his works to the people at the Olympic games, which undoubtedly laid the foundation of the general approbation with which his writings have been honoured.—His *Bella Peloponneſiaco*, with notes by Stephens, Hudſon, Waſſe, and Duke, was printed by Wetſtein at Amſterdam, in 2 vols. folio, 1731.

Xenophon, who was alſo an Athenian, an author, and a ſoldier, was born about the time that Thucydides died, whoſe work he continued; for the execution of which he had ſufficient leiſure, as, like the former, he was obliged to ſhun his native country for many years together. To Socrates he was obliged for his learning; and, for his military fame, to his retreat with ten thouſand men after Cyrus the younger had been defeated by his brother Artaxerxes Mnemon. The

Greeks

Greeks being in the greateſt conſternation occaſioned by the news of the fate of their commanders, who had been beheaded by the orders of Artaxerxes, and finding themſelves 5 or 600 leagues from their native country, no longer entertained a doubt that their total deſtruction was reſolved on; —they were hemmed in by a royal army; ſurrounded by mountains and deſerts; and with no guide to lead them through the multitude of enemies that lay in their way. In this general dejection, Xenophon, who had hitherto ſerved only in the ſtation of a cadet, diſplayed an extraordinary firmneſs of ſoul. Aſſembling the remaining officers, he told them that their courage was now their only reſource. He adviſed them to appoint new officers to ſupply the places of thoſe they had loſt; to burn their tents and baggage; to begin their retreat immediately; and to march in the form of a hollow ſquare, that ſo they might always be prepared to oppoſe the enemy, from whatever quarter they were attacked:—A ſurpriſing inſtance of what one man of genius and reſolution is capable of performing! The Greeks when on the point of diſperſing, and falling into the hands of their enemies, are ſaved by the wiſdom and activity of Xenophon. Perceiving that the expedient propoſed by him was the moſt eligible and ſafe they could follow, they immediately embraced it, and named new commanders. Next morning, by the dawn of day, the troops being aſſembled, Xenophon, in order to confirm their courage, made them an harangue, wherein he intreated them to recal to remembrance the famous days of Marathon, Thermopylæ, and Platea, when their anceſtors, with armies greatly more inferior to their enemies than they were to thoſe by whom they were at preſent oppoſed, had nevertheleſs remained victorious; and to reſt perſuaded, that the gods, the avengers of perfidy, would ſupport their defence. The words of Xenophon were much applauded by the whole army, who unanimouſly approved of his advice, and inſtantly put it in execution. After continuing their journey for ſome days, conſtantly directing their march towards the heads of the great rivers till they found them fordable; they were at laſt overtaken and haraſſed by the army of Tiſſaphernes, who had purſued them with all his forces. But the Greeks, changing their order of march, repulſed his attacks with very little loſs on their own ſide; and it ſhould ſeem that Tiſſaphernes very ſoon grew weary of purſuing them, for after this time there is no farther mention made of him in the relation of Xenophon. On their arrival at the river Tigris, finding it unfordable on account of its depth, they were obliged to traverſe the mountains of the Carducæ, and forced to diſpute their paſſage with the inhabitants of thoſe hills, who had poſted themſelves on the higher grounds. It coſt them ſeven days to make good their paſſage, which they at laſt effected with much labour and fatigue, after being obliged to abandon their beaſts of burden, and the priſoners they had taken in their march; and after ſuffering a great deal from repeated attacks of the inhabitants of the country. After croſſing thoſe mountains, they were ſtopped by a very large river that ran along the foot of them, but paſſed it at laſt with much difficulty. Then, entering the weſtern quarter of Armenia, they forded the Tigris at its ſource. Teribazus, the king of Perſia's governor in that province, permitted the Greeks to take what proviſions they thought proper; but at the ſame time privately reſolved to lay an ambuſcade for them in a narrow defile, between ſome mountains through which their road lay. The Greeks, getting notice of his deſign, prevented him, by taking poſſeſſion of the paſs before him, and beat off the ſoldiers ſent againſt them. After this, having croſſed the Euphrates, they were obliged to march through ſnow from five to ſix feet deep. This part of their journey was attended with great hardſhips, and many of the ſoldiers periſhed by the ſeverity of the cold and the great fatigue. After paſſing the ſnow, they came to certain villages, conſiſting of huts dug under ground, where they reſted ſeveral

days. Re-commencing their journey, they ſoon arrived at the river Arazes, or Phaſes. This river being here unfordable, they were obliged to march about through the mountains, where they were oppoſed by the Phaſians and Chalybes, whom they forced at laſt to retire. After paſſing through the country of the Chalybes, they came to a very high mountain; whence getting a ſight of the ſea, they were ſeized with an exceſs of joy. They had ſtill, however, the mountains of Colchis to traverſe, and to defend themſelves againſt the barbarous inhabitants. But, by the ſkilful diſpoſition of the army by Xenophon, they oppoſed and diſperſed thoſe barbarians. Then, falling down into the plain, they arrived at certain villages, where they found great plenty of proviſions, and reſted ſome days. In a few days more they reached Trebizond, a Greek colony, where they halted a month. Here they celebrated divers ſorts of games with much joy, and paid the vows they had made to the gods in caſe of their ſafe return. After deliberating whether they ſhould proceed from the place to Greece by ſea, they came to a reſolution to tranſport only their old and ſickly men in that way, becauſe they could not find ſhipping ſufficient to carry the whole army. The reſt continued their route over land. On arriving at Ceraſus they reviewed their forces, and found them to amount to 8600 infantry, out of 10,000 that had undertaken the retreat; but of their horſe only 40 remained. Coming to Cotyora, and being informed by the inhabitants, that, if they proceeded farther by land, they would meet with ſeveral rivers and defiles very difficult to be paſſed, they accepted of the ſhips offered them by the Cotyoreans, which landed them next day at Sinope, a Mileſian colony in Paphlagonia. The ſoldiers, ſeeing themſelves now ſo near their native country, became deſirous of obtaining ſome plunder before their arrival. With this view, they informed Xenophon of their intentions of creating a commander in chief; all their meaſures having been hitherto determined by the plurality of votes in a general council. At the ſame time, they intimated their intention of conferring that honour on him. On this occaſion, Xenophon, ſenſible of their intention, and deſirous to keep himſelf diſengaged from their ſcheme, repreſented to them, that, if they were reſolved to create a commander in chief, it was highly proper that a Lacedemonian ſhould fill that ſtation, as that ſtate at preſent occupied the foremoſt rank in Greece. But perceiving them to be by no means ſatisfied with this reaſon, but, on the contrary obſtinate in their choice of him, he was forced at laſt to tell them, that he had conſulted the gods on the ſubject, and found them averſe to his undertaking the command. This effectually freed him from further ſolicitation for the preſent; and the choice of the Greeks next fell upon Chryſophorus, a Lacedemonian. The ſoldiers beginning to indulge their deſire of plunder, their new general interpoſed, and prohibited them from plundering the Greek colonies. This produced mutinies and diſcord in the army, and laid them under the neceſſity of dividing into three bodies; the firſt of which, conſiſting of the Peloponneſians, to the number of 4400 men, was commanded by Licon and Callimachus; the ſecond, conſiſting of 2100 men, by Chryſophorus; and the third, of the ſame number, by Xenophon. Having procured ſhipping from the inhabitants of Heraclea, they embarked at different times, and landed at Chryſopolis. This being a very rich town, the ſoldiers reſolved to pillage it: but upon Xenophon's repreſenting to them, that by ſo doing they would draw upon themſelves the reſentment of the Lacedemonians, many of whom were ſettled there, they relinquiſhed that deſign. From Chryſopolis, therefore, they marched, under the conduct of Xenophon, to Salmydeſſa in Thrace, upon a preſſing invitation from Seuthes, the ſovereign of that country, who intreated their aſſiſtance to recover his dominions; and, the more effectually to prevail with them to comply with his deſire, promiſed them a great reward. But, after they had performed the ſervice for which

he

he wanted them, he broke his word, and refuſed to give them any thing; and, though Xenophon complained grievouſly of his injuſtice, he obtained no redreſs. This Seuthes was an avaricious prince, entirely influenced by a miniſter, void of all faith and honeſty, whoſe only aim was to increaſe his own private fortune. In the mean time, ambaſſadors from Sparta waited on Xenophon, to inform him, that, at the earneſt intreaty of the towns of Ionia, which had embraced the cauſe of the younger Cyrus, and, on that account, dreaded the reſentment of Tiſſaphernes, they had declared war againſt Tiſſaphernes and Pharnabazus, and had already diſpatched an army into Ionia, under the command of Thymbron, to protect that country from being ravaged by the enemy. The Greeks, under the command of Xenophon, hearing that the troops in that expedition received very large pay, engaged themſelves in the ſame ſervice, with the conſent of their commander, who conducted them to Lampſacus by ſea, their number then amounting all together to no more than 6000 men. From Lampſacus he proceeded to Pergamus, and from thence to Parthenia, which is accounted the period of this celebrated retreat. Thymbron, having there joined them with his troops, led all his army from that place againſt Tiſſaphernes. Thus ended the famous expedition of the ten thouſand; who, in ſpite of the numberleſs difficulties they had to encounter at almoſt every ſtep, performed in the ſpace of little more than four months, counting from the period of the battle of Cunaxa to their arrival at Pergamus, a march of about 1900 miles. This retreat, the moſt extraordinary recorded in any hiſtory, is extremely admired by the maſters in the art of war, for the boldneſs of the undertaking, for the ſkill with which it was conducted, and for the ſucceſsful event. For, in ſpite of the difficulties of every kind that ſeemed to oppoſe their return, they were ſo lucky as to reach their native country victorious.—Of Xenophon's works we ſhould prefer the Oxford edition, 1703, 5 vols. 8vo.

Diodorus, ſurnamed Siculus from the iſland where he was born, lived in the days of Julius and Auguſtus Cæſar. This author travelled no leſs than thirty years, merely with an intent to gather materials for his hiſtorical work, which originally conſiſted of forty books, but fifteen only have eſcaped the ravages of deſtructive time: not that there is much reaſon to regret the loſs, ſince thoſe which remain are chiefly filled with fables and inconſiſtent ſtories, mythological rather than hiſtorical.—*Diodori Siculi Bibliotheca hiſtorica* was printed at Amſterdam in 1746, 2 vols. folio, with notes by Weſſeling, Stephens, Rhodoman, Urſin, Valeſius, and Palmer.

Arrianus, by birth a Nicomedian, lived in the pleaſing times of Hadrian, Antoninus Pius, and Antoninus Philoſophus. His merit raiſed him to the conſular dignity; and he had the happineſs, during an uncommon but univerſal period of tranquillity, to diſcharge the duties of his office, and to proſecute his ſtudies in peace.—*Arriani Expeditiones Alexandri, libri vii.* was printed at Leydon, folio, 1704, under the inſpection of Gronovius, and with his annotations.

Quintus Curtius Rufus. There have been many diſputes who this Curtius was; whether he lived in the reign of Auguſtus, Tiberius, or Veſpaſian; whether the Hiſtory of Alexander, bearing the name of Curtius, was not written by an Italian in the fourteenth century. In ſhort, all that we can gather from theſe diſputes ſeems to be, that the matter is ſtill as doubtful as ever: yet, from his ſtyle and manner of writing, it ſhould rather be preſumed that Curtius lived in the flouriſhing times of the Roman empire, and that he was really the author of the work aſcribed to him. Frenſheim has endeavoured, by way of ſupplement, to add what ſeemed wanting to complete the hiſtory:—A more particular account of this author will be found in Bayle. His works were firſt printed at Venice in 1471, folio. The beſt and neateſt edition is that printed at Leyden in 1724, 2 vols. quarto, with notes and cuts.

(To be continued.)

ACCOUNT

ACCOUNT of the STORMING and TAKING of BANGALORE by Marquis CORNWALLIS, in March 1791. With a Portrait of the Marquis, and a beautiful Repreſentation of the Aſſault.

LORD Cornwallis encamped within ſight of Bangalore in the evening of the 5th of March, 1791. His lordſhip immediately laid ſiege to this important fort, and on the 13th of March carried the pettah by ſtorm. During the attack Lieutenant-colonel Moorhouſe, of the artillery on the Madras eſtabliſhment, and Captain Delaney, of his majeſty's 36th regiment, were killed, with ſome few private Europeans and ſepoys. The next day Tippoo's army appeared in ſight, and he made two ſeparate attempts to drive the Britiſh troops from this ſtation, and was repulſed in each with very great ſlaughter. On the 22d Lord Cornwallis determined, without further delay, to ſtorm the fort, as he was beginning to run ſhort of proviſions. The ſtorming party conſiſted of the 36th, 72d, 76th, king's regiments, two battalions of ſepoys, together with the European grenadiers and light infantry of the army; and the whole command by Major-general Meadows.

They were obliged to aſcend and deſcend by ſcaling ladders; and in two hours from the commencement of the aſſault the Britiſh colours were ſeen flying on the rampart. The garriſon conſiſted of about 3000 men, 1500 of whom were inſtantly and inevitably put to the bayonet. Among the killed was the Killedar, an old man, and nearly related to the Sultan. Great quantities of grain were found in the fort and pettah; and we are happy to add, that this glorious enterprize was effected with the loſs of only about 20 men killed and wounded on our ſide. Bangalore was reckoned among Tippoo's ſtrongeſt holds in the Myſore country, and conſequently its loſs was ſeverely felt by him.

The fort is nearly oval, with two gates covered by outworks, but without a drawbridge; one to the ſouth-weſt, called the Seringapatam-gate —the other, Ooſcottah, to the eaſtward. It appears to be irregularly built, about a mile and three quarters in circumference, with ſmall round baſtions at the diſtance of 50 or 60 yards, incapable of containing more than three guns each. Six lofty cavaliers in different parts, mounting each eight or ten guns, command the fort and the adjacent country; the rampart is ſufficiently broad to admit of the heavieſt guns being fired from the curtains; and the ditch, except in two places where it is covered by outworks, is deep and broad, but with hardly any water in it.—The fauſſe-braye is wide, and the covert-way very judiciouſly conſtructed; the glacis, as is uſual in Indian forts, too ſteep. More than 100 pieces of cannon were taken, with great quantities of ammunition and military ſtores.

All accounts concur in admiring the extent and magnificence of the palace, and the plantations and diſpoſition of its garden; exact architecture or elegance could not be looked for, but much more of both was found than could have been expected. In the extenſive chambers of the palace, a rich profuſion of carpets, hangings, and ſilks, gilded and fluted pillars, and walls and cielings painted and burniſhed; and, in the garden, walks and pieces of water well diſpoſed and planted, with lofty and ſhady avenues, and fruit and flowers in great abundance. But a ſtill more important proof of the rapid ſtrides the former maſter of Bangalore was making in uſeful improvements, was the ſtate of the foundry for cannon and iron-works which he carried on there. One very remarkable machine for boring muſkets was found; it is worked by bullocks, and ſuch is its force and contrivance as to bore fifty at a time. The venerable Killedar, Bahauder Khan, fell in the ſtorm of the ramparts. The ſecond in command alſo fell; and Kiſtna Row, Tippoo's favourite Buckſhee, was taken priſoner.—The walls were ſcaled in two places at once.

POETRY.

POETRY.

BRITISH BOUNTY,
Or, BEAUTY's DONATION.

FROM DIBDIN'S CASTLES IN THE AIR.

COME on, jolly lads, to the drum-
head repair,
I beat up for recruits in the name of the
fair,
Britain's fair, who, to beauty to add a new
charm,
Send good wiſhes and flannel our ſoldiers
to warm.
At the ſound of the fife and the roll of the
drum
Come away, my lads, come; come away
my lads, come.
At the ſweet call of beauty to duty repair,
And worthily merit the gift of the fair.
What but vict'ry complete can reſult from
thoſe wars,
When the ceſtus of Venus encircles each
Mars?

At old Troy ſome kind goddeſs by ſpell or
by charm
Condeſcending preſerv'd votive warriors
from harm:
So Britons ſhall boaſt the ſame tut'lary care
Invuln'rable grown by the gift of the fair.
At the ſound of the fife, &c.

England's armour's her commerce—the
woolſack is known
To take place in this kingdom of all but
the throne:
The pow'r of our arms then what force
can withſtand,
When wool's form'd into armour by
beauty's fair hand?
At the ſound of the fife, &c.

'Tis allow'd through the world, as this
nation's proud meed,
That the beauties of Britain all beauties
exceed:
How then muſt that beauty each Briton
enſlave
When it renders its influence to ſuccour
the brave?
At the ſound of the fife, &c.

Complete then the work; for the brave
and the bold
Let no fair in this land her aſſiſtance with-
hold.
What pow'r to attack Britiſh ſoldiers ſhall
dare
Who are arm'd cap-a-pie by a generous
fair?
At the ſound of the fife, &c.

A WINTER-PIECE.

IT was a winter's evening, and faſt
came down the ſnow,
And keenly o'er the wide heath the bitter
blaſt did blow,
When a damſel all-forlorn, quite bewil-
der'd in her way,
Preſt her baby to her boſom, and ſadly
thus did ſay:

"Oh! cruel was my father, that ſhut his
door on me;
And cruel was my mother, that ſuch a
ſight could ſee;
And cruel is the wint'ry wind, that chills
my heart with cold;
But crueller than all, the lad that left my
love for gold!

Huſh, huſh, my lovely baby, and warm
thee in my breaſt;
Ah! little thinks thy father how ſadly
we're diſtreſt;
For, cruel as he is, did he know but how
we fare,
He'd ſhield us in his arms from this bitter
piercing air.

Cold, cold, my deareſt jewel! thy little
life is gone:
Oh! let my tears revive thee, ſo warm
that trickle down:
My tears that guſh ſo warm, oh they
freeze before they fall:
Ah, wretched, wretched mother! thou'rt
now bereft of all."

Then down ſhe ſunk, deſpairing, upon
the drifted ſnow,
And, wrung with killing anguiſh, lament-
ed loud her woe:
She kiſs'd her baby's pale lips, and laid
it by her ſide;
Then caſt her eyes to Heaven, then bow'd
her head, and died.

TO-MORROW. AN EPIGRAM.

TO-morrow you will live, you always
cry;
In what far country does to-morrow lie,
That 'tis ſo mighty long e'er it arrive?
Beyond the Indies does this morrow
live?
'Tis ſo far fetch'd, this morrow, that I
fear,
'Twill be both very old, and very dear.
To-morrow I will live, the fool does ſay.
To-day's too late; the wiſe liv'd yeſter-
day.

SIMILE OF A SWORD.

I'VE thought, the fair Narciſſa cries;
What is it like, Sir?——"Like your eyes—
'Tis like a chair—'tis like a key——
'Tis like a purge—'tis like a flea——
'Tis like a beggar—like the ſun——
'Tis like the Dutch—'tis like the moon
'Tis like a kilderkin of ale——
'Tis like a doctor—like a whale."——
Why are my eyes, Sir, like a Sword?
For that's the thought, upon my word.
"Ah! witneſs every pang I feel,
The deaths they give the likeneſs tell.
A ſword is like a chair you'll find,
Becauſe 'tis moſt an end behind.
'Tis like a key, for it will undo one;
'Tis like a purge, for 'twill run through one;
'Tis like a flea, and reaſon good,
'Tis often drawing human blood."
Why like a beggar?——"You ſhall hear;
'Tis often carried 'fore the may'r;
'Tis like the ſun, becauſe 'tis gilt;
Beſides, it travels in a *belt*.
'Tis like the Dutch we plainly ſee,
Becauſe that ſtate, whenever we
A puſh for our own int'reſt make,
Does inſtantly our ſides forſake."
The moon?----Why, when all's ſaid and done,
A ſword is very like the moon;
For if his majeſty (God bleſs him),
When county ſheriff comes t'addreſs him,
Is pleas'd his favours to beſtow
On him, before him kneeling low,
This o'er his ſhoulders glitter bright,
And gives the glory to the knight (night):
'Tis like a kilderkin, no doubt,
For 'tis not long in drawing out.
'Tis like a doctor, for who will
Diſpute a doctor's pow'r to kill?"
But why a ſword is like a whale
Is no ſuch eaſy thing to tell;
"But ſince all ſwords are ſwords, d'yeſee,
Why, let it then a backſword be,
Which, if well us'd, will ſeldom fail
To raiſe up ſomewhat like a whale."

VERSES,

Addreſſed, on Chriſtmas-day, to a Lady who requeſted a Specimen of the Author's Poetry.

GO, favour'd paper, and to R——n preſent,
On Chriſtmas morn, ſome little compliment:
With flattery's voice do not her ear offend;
But ſpeak the language of an honeſt friend:
Praiſe not, like modern bards, her ſparkling eyes;
Nor ſay, "For her the lovely Strephon dies!"
Praiſe not her mouth; nor, with each witling, ſay,
"That round her lips a thouſand Cupids play:"
Praiſe not her teeth, comparing them to ſnow;
Nor auburn ringlets o'er her neck that flow:
Praiſe not her ſhape, her gait, her mien, and air,
Nor ſay, "How fair, ah! how divinely fair!"
Avaunt ſuch themes!—be flatt'ry baniſh'd hence,
And praiſe, what pleaſe us more, her wit and ſenſe.
When beauty's bloom begins with years to fade,
And all its charms are ſunk beneath the ſhade,
Good ſenſe and wit true pleaſure can impart,
Delight the ear, and warm the dulleſt heart.
Theſe, theſe alone, ſhould be each female's pride;
For theſe to lateſt years alone abide:
To beauty theſe add dignity and grace,
And charms ſupply ev'n to the homely face.

When round the fire the little circle ſit,
What can enliven like good ſenſe and wit?
What more diſpel the gloom of winter's day,
And make December rival ſportive May?
In married life, theſe, like a charm, can bind,
Soothe every care, and calm the ruffled mind:
Theſe will endear in widow, maid, or wife,
Heal wedlock's wounds, and gild the eve of life.
When dire misfortune clouds a huſband's eye,
Good ſenſe and wit a remedy ſupply;
And conſolation, from a female tongue,
Exceeds whate'er the ſweeteſt ſyren ſung.
In choice of friends, good ſenſe will never err,
But men of worth, to faſhion's fools, prefer;
While wit, well us'd, will rivet their eſteem,
And charm their fancy with its tranſient gleam.
In ſhort, good ſenſe and wit, to virtue join'd,
Can form a ſpell to rule the human mind:
To whate'er female theſe rare gifts are giv'n,
Life muſt be pleaſure—earth a perfect heav'n.
Nor ſo is beauty—ſoon its reign is o'er,
And when enjoy'd it ſeldom charms us more:
Whilſt wit and ſenſe ſurvive the faireſt face,
And even in age ſhine ſtill with youthful grace.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

EVACUATION OF TOULON.

LEGHORN, *Dec.* 25.

IN the afternoon of the 22d arrived, in five days from Toulon, the brigantine Ferdinand the Fourth, Giovanni Lucheſi maſter: the Tartane, belonging to Andrea Vacarillo, arrived yeſterday from the ſame place; and laſt night the Tartane, belonging to Roſa, alſo arrived; being all three Neapolitans. The maſters of theſe veſſels have depoſed the following facts:--For many days vaſt numbers of the republican troops aſſembled in the woods about Toulon, beſides thoſe who were already before it. From the 13th of December they made many attempts againſt the place, but with little ſucceſs. In the evening of the 17th, a very numerous French army attacked all the advanced poſts, and ſome of the forts. The Neapolitans, who were encamped on the outſide of Fort Balaguier, called out, To arms! but they had ſcarcely time to take them up, when they were attacked by the enemy, and obliged to abandon to them their camp and the fort, and to retire under the town with ſome loſs. The other combined troops that defended the different poſts were alſo obliged to abandon them, on account of the great ſuperiority of the enemy.

In conſequence of ſuch an unexpected event, a council of war was held, on the morning of the 18th, by the three generals who commanded the combined troops; when it was determined, that all merchant-ſhips and tranſports, of whatever nation (of which there were more than an hundred), ſhould immediately go out of the port, and place themſelves in the road under the protection of the Engliſh and Spaniſh ſquadrons which anchored under Fort La Malgue. All the Toulonese royaliſts were at the ſame time permitted to embark, and get out of every danger. At the ſame time the Neapolitan General Forteguerri ordered the Neapolitan troops to embark on-board of twelve tranſports, and three ſhips of war of 74 guns each, two frigates, two corvettes, and a brigantine. The embarkation was performed with the greateſt order and expedition: and, after their baggage was on-board, they ſailed, but with little wind; for at nine o'clock in the evening they were only three miles diſtant from the road of Toulon. The other ſhips and all the French men of war left the port, and were ready in the great road. The embarkation of the reſt of the troops, and of many thouſands of the Touloneſe, was executed in the greateſt order, as was alſo the carrying away the naval ſtores and other effects. It was neceſſary, however, to leave all the artillery behind, but completely ſpiked; but it is ſaid that the French have ſince ſucceeded in rendering them ſerviceable again.

In the town, on the morning of the 18th, an inſurrection of the malcontents took place, who, taking advantage of the diſorder, and of the flight of the royaliſts, fell upon them with ſabres and every kind of weapons, and made a horrid carnage of them, in order to ſeize their effects. The loſs of the allies is computed to be 3000 men; that of the French, both in the town and belonging to the army, more than 10,000.

Before the place was abandoned, the commanding officers of the allies ordered the moſt important parts of the port to be ſet on fire; and, by day-break, a moſt terrible fire was ſeen at a great diſtance, which conſumed the arſenal, ſome fortifications, and even the baſon of the port. It was ſo furious, that it extended to the town; and ſoon two great ſhocks were heard, which were either the exploſion of the powder-magazine, or the blowing up of two large French ſhips, on-board of which Lord Hood had placed almoſt the whole powder of the place, and which were ſtationed at the entrance of the arſenal. Theſe ſhocks, ſo near the town, muſt have rent and deſtroyed moſt of the houſes.

The combined ſquadron had not abandoned the moſt eminent poſts, having kept poſſeſſion of Fort La Malgue, from whence the boats of the Engliſh and Spaniſh ſquadrons carried a great quantity of ammunition, ſhip-ſtores, and proviſions; from which it was evident, that they were reſolved to be plentifully provided with theſe articles, and that they were determined to maintain that poſt till all their ſhips were ſecure. A conſtant fire of artillery was kept up from it upon the town, but none of the other forts fired, which gave reaſon to believe they had been abandoned by the allied troops. In the fleet, five French men of war were alſo found--the Commerce de Marſeilles of 120 guns, two of 74 guns, and two frigates.

It is feared that the Bedford, of 74 guns, with two Britiſh frigates, and a tranſport of proviſions, have fallen into the ſnare of the republicans at Toulon;

as they agree exactly with the letters of the commiſſioners, and the report of the younger Roberſpierre to the convention. The Bedford ſailed from Leghorn on Chriſtmas-day; and, as ſhe ſteered for Toulon, there can ſcarcely be a doubt but that ſhe was deceived by the flags of the allies ſtill flying on the forts, and thus became a ſacrifice.

The ſcene of the embarkation of the troops at Toulon was in the extreme degree calamitous and afflicting. The greateſt part of the inhabitans who had not been ſo decided and active in their ſupport of the allies, and who therefore foreſaw that they muſt be left behind, abandoned themſelves to the influence of complete deſpair. They deſcended in immenſe numbers to the ſea-ſide. The aged and the infirm, men, women, and children, threw themſelves upon the ſhore in the greateſt agony, and intreated protection in the moſt pathetic terms; the Britiſh fleet, however, could contain no more perſons, and their intreaties therefore could not be complied with. The unfurling of the ſails and the weighing of the anchors added to the diſtreſs and deſpair of the unhappy ſpectators; and induced ſeveral to plunge into the ſea, and to attempt to ſwim to the ſhips. Others committed ſuicide on-ſhore; the remainder returned to the city, when a battle enſued, in which many fell on both ſides.

The Neapolitan fleet ſailed firſt out of the harbour, and anchored in the Gulph of Spezzia. On the 21ſt a ſtorm aroſe, which it was feared had done much damage to the ſhips which had ſailed after the Neapolitan fleet.

The following Account is publiſhed in the

GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

WHITEHALL, *Jan.* 15.

This morning Sir Sydney Smith and Major Moncrief arrived at the office of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, with diſpatches from Vice-Admiral Lord Hood and Major General David Dundas, of which the following are copies and extracts.

Victory, Hieres Bay, Dec. 20, 1793.

It is my duty to acquaint you, that I have been obliged to evacuate Toulon, and to retire from the harbour to this anchorage.

It became unavoidably neceſſary that the retreat ſhould not be deferred beyond that night, as the enemy commanded the town and ſhips by their ſhot and ſhells; I therefore, agreeable to the governor's plan, directed the boats of the fleet to aſſemble by eleven o'clock, near Fort la Malgue, and am happy to ſay the whole of the troops were brought off, to the number of near 8,000, without the loſs of a man: and in the execution of this ſervice I have infinite pleaſure in acknowledging my very great obligations to Captain Elphinſtone for his unremitting zeal and exertion, who ſaw the laſt man off; and it is a very comfortable ſatisfaction to me that ſeveral thouſands of the meritorious inhabitants of Toulon were ſheltered in his majeſty's ſhips.

I propoſe ſending the Vice-Admirals Hotham and Coſby, with ſome other ſhips, to Leghorn or Porto Ferrara, to complete their wine and proviſions, which run very ſhort, having many mouths to feed, and to remain with the reſt to block up the ports of Toulon and Marſeilles. Circumſtances which had taken place made the retreat abſolutely neceſſary to be effected as ſoon as poſſible, and prevented the execution of a ſettled arrangement for deſtroying the French ſhips and arſenal. I ordered the Vulcan fire-ſhip to be primed, and Sir Sydney Smith, who joined me from Smyrna about a fortnight ago, having offered his ſervices to burn the ſhips, I put Captain Hare under his orders, with Lieutenants Tupper and Gore of the Victory, Lieutenant Pater of the Britannia, and Lieutenant R. W. Miller of the Windſor Caſtle. Ten of the enemy's ſhips of the line in the arſenal, with the maſt-houſe, great ſtore-houſe, hemp-houſe, and other buildings, were totally deſtroyed, and before day-light all his majeſty's ſhips, with thoſe of Spain and the two Sicilies, were out of the reach of the enemy's ſhot and ſhells, except the Robuſt, which was to receive Captain Elphinſtone, and ſhe followed very ſoon after, without a ſhot ſtriking her. I have under my orders Rear-Admiral Trogoff, in the Commerce de Marſeilles, Puiſſant, and Pompée, of the line; the Pearl, Arethuſa, and Topaze, frigates; and ſeveral large corvettes which I have manned, and employed in collecting wine and proviſions from the different ports in Spain and Italy, having been conſtantly in want of one ſpecies or another, and am now at ſhort allowance.

Don Langara undertook to deſtroy the ſhips in the baſon, but, I am informed, found it not practicable; and as the Spaniſh troops had the guarding the powder veſſels, which contained the powder of the ſhips I ordered into the Baſon and arſenal on my coming here, as well as that from the diſtant magazines within the enemy's reach, I requeſted the Spaniſh admiral would be pleaſed to give orders for their being ſcuttled and ſunk; but, inſtead of doing that, the officer to whom

that duty was entruſted blew them up, by which two fine gun-boats, which I had ordered to attend Sir Sydney Smith, were ſhaken to pieces. The lieutenant commanding one of them was killed, and ſeveral ſeamen badly wounded. I am ſorry to add, that Lieutenant Goddard, of the Victory, who commanded the ſeamen upon the heights of Graſſe, was wounded, but I hope and truſt not dangerouſly.

I beg to refer you for further particulars to General Dundas reſpecting the evacuation of Toulon, and to Sir Sydney Smith as to the burning the enemy's ſhips, &c. on which ſervice he very much diſtinguiſhed himſelf; and he gives great praiſe to Captain Hare, of the fireſhip, as well as to all the lieutenants employed under him.

It is with very peculiar ſatisfaction I have the honour to acquaint you, that the utmoſt harmony, and moſt cordial underſtanding, has happily ſubſiſted in his majeſtys army and fleet, not only between the officers of all ranks, but between the ſeamen and ſoldiers alſo. HOOD.

My Lord, *Toulon, Dec.* 18. 1793.

Agreeably to your lordſhip's order, I proceeded with the Swallow tender, and three Engliſh and three Spaniſh gun-boats, to the arſenal, and immediately began making the neceſſary preparations for burning the French ſhips and ſtores therein. We found the dock-gates well ſecured by the judicious arrangements of the governor, although the dock-yard people had already ſubſtituted the three-coloured cockade for the white one. I did not think it ſafe to attempt the ſecuring any of them, conſidering the ſmall force I had with me, and conſidering that a conteſt of any kind would occupy our whole attention, and prevent us from accompliſhing our purpoſe.

The galley ſlaves, to the number of at leaſt 600, ſhewed themſelves jealous ſpectators of our operations: their diſpoſition to oppoſe us was evident; and being unchained, which was unuſual, rendered it neceſſary to keep a watchful eye on them on-board the gallies, by pointing the guns of the Swallow tender and one of the gun-boats on them, in ſuch a manner as to enfilade the Quay on which they muſt have landed to come to us, aſſuring them, at the ſame time, that no harm ſhould happen to them if they remained quiet. The enemy kept up a croſs fire of ſhot and ſhells on the ſpot from Malbouſquet and the neighbouring hills, which contributed to keep the galley-ſlaves in ſubjection, and operated in every reſpect favourably for us, by keeping the republican party in the town within their houſes, while it occaſioned little interruption to our work of preparing and placing combuſtible matter in the different ſtore-houſes, and on-board the ſhips; ſuch was the ſteadineſs of the few brave ſeamen I had under my command. A great multitude of the enemy continued to draw down the hill towards the dock-yard wall, and as the night cloſed in they came near enough to pour in an irregular though quick fire of muſquetry on us from the Boulangerie, and of cannon from the heights which overlook it. We kept them at bay by diſcharges of grape-ſhot from time to time, which prevented their coming ſo near as to diſcover the inſufficiency of our force to repel a cloſer attack. A gun-boat was ſtationed to flank the wall on the outſide, and two field-pieces were placed within againſt the wicker uſually frequented by the workmen, of whom we were particularly apprehenſive. About eight o'clock I had the ſatisfaction of ſeeing Lieutenant Gore towing in the Vulcan fireſhip. Captain Hare, her commander, placed her, agreeably to my directions, in a moſt maſterly manner, acroſs the tier of men of war, and the additional force of her guns and men diminiſhed my apprehenſions of the galley-ſlaves riſing on us, as their manner and occaſional tumultuous debates ceaſed entirely on her appearance. The only noiſe heard among them was the hammer knocking off their fetters, which humanity forbade my oppoſing, as they might thereby be more at liberty to ſave themſelves on the conflagration taking place around them. In this ſituation we continued to wait moſt anxiouſly for the hour concerted with the governor for the inflammation of the trains. The moment the ſignal was made, we had the ſatisfaction to ſee the flames riſe in every quarter. Lieutenant Tupper was charged with the burning of the general magazine, the pitch, tar, tallow, and oil, ſtore-houſes, and ſucceeded moſt perfectly; the hemp magazine was included in this blaze: its being nearly calm was unfortunate to the ſpreading of the flames, but 250 barrels of tar, divided among the deals and other timber, inſured the rapid ignition of that whole quarter, which Lieutenant Tupper had undertaken.

The maſt-houſe was equally well ſet on fire by Lieutenant Middleton, of the Britannia. Lieutenant Pater, of the Britannia, continued in a moſt daring manner to brave the flames, in order to complete the work where the fire ſeemed to have caught imperfectly. I was obliged to call him off, leſt his retreat ſhould become

come impracticable: his ſituation was the more perilous, as the enemy's fire redoubled as ſoon as the amazing blaze of light rendered us diſtinct objects of their aim. Lieut. Iremonger, of the royals, remained with the guard at the gate till the laſt, long after the Spaniſh guard had withdrawn, and was brought ſafely off by Captain Edge of the Alert, to whom I had confided the important ſervice of cloſing our retreat, and bringing off our detached parties, which were ſaved to a man. I was ſorry to find myſelf deprived of the further ſervices of Captain Hare: he had performed that of placing his fire-ſhip to admiration, but was blown into the water, and much ſcorched, by the exploſion of her priming, when in the act of putting the match to it. Lieutenant Gore was alſo much burnt, and I was conſequently deprived of him alſo, which I regretted the more, from the recollection of his bravery and activity in the warm ſervice of Fort Mulgrave. Mr. Eales, midſhipman, who was alſo with him on this occaſion, deſerves my praiſe for his conduct throughout this ſervice. The guns of the fire-ſhip going off on both ſides as they heated, in the direction that was given them, towards thoſe quarters from whence we were moſt apprehenſive of the enemy forcing their way in upon us, checked their career. Their ſhouts and republican ſongs, which we could hear diſtinctly, continued till they, as well as ourſelves, were in a manner thunderſtruck by the exploſion of ſome thouſand barrels of powder on-board the Iris frigate, lying in the Inner Road, without us, and which had been injudiciouſly ſet on fire by the Spaniſh boats, in going off, inſtead of being ſunk, as ordered. The concuſſion of air, and the ſhower of falling timber on fire, was ſuch, as nearly to deſtroy the whole of us. Lieutenant Paty, of the Terrible, with his whole boat's crew, nearly periſhed; the boat was blown to pieces, but the men were picked up alive. The Union gun-boat, which was neareſt to the Iris, ſuffered conſiderably, Mr. Young, being killed with three men, and the veſſel ſhaken to pieces. I had given it in charge to the Spaniſh officers to fire the ſhips in the baſon before the town; but they returned, and reported that various obſtacles had prevented their entering it. We attempted it together, as ſoon as we had completed the buſineſs in the arſenal, but were repulſed in our attempt to cut the boom, by repeated vollies of muſquetry from the flag-ſhip and the wall of the Battery Royale. The cannon of this battery had been ſpiked by the judicious precaution taken by the governor, previouſly to the evacuation of the town.

The failure of our attempt on the ſhips in the baſon before the town, owing to the inſufficiency of our force, made me regret that the Spaniſh gun-boats had been withdrawn from me to perform other ſervice. The adjutant Don Pedro Cotiella, Don Franciſco Riguelme, and Don Franciſco Trueſella, remained with me to the laſt; and I feel bound to bear teſtimony of the zeal and activity with which they performed the moſt eſſential ſervices during the whole of this buſineſs, as far as the inſufficiency of their force allowed it, being reduced, by the retreat of the gun-boats, to a ſingle ſellucca, and a mortar-boat which had expended its ammunition, but contained thirty men with cutlaſſes.

We now proceeded to burn the Hero and Themiſtocles, two ſeventy-four gun ſhips, lying in the Inner Road. Our approach to them had hitherto been impracticable in boats, as the French priſoners who had been left in the latter ſhip were ſtill in poſſeſſion of her, and had ſhewn a determination to reſiſt our attempt to come on-board. The ſcene of conflagration around them, heightened by the late tremendous exploſion, had however awakened their fears for their lives. Thinking this to be the caſe, I addreſſed them, expreſſing my readineſs to land them in a place of ſafety, if they would ſubmit: and they thankfully accepted the offer, ſhewing themſelves to be completely intimidated, and very grateful for our humane intentions towards them, in not attempting to burn them with the ſhip. It was neceſſary to proceed with precaution, as they were more numerous than ourſelves. We at length completed their diſembarkation, and then ſet her on fire. On this occaſion I had nearly loſt my valuable friend and aſſiſtant, Lieutenant Miller, of the Windſor-Caſtle, who had ſtaid ſo long on-board to inſure the fire taking, that it gained on him ſuddenly, and it was not without being very much ſcorched, and the riſk of being ſuffocated, that we could approach the ſhip to take him. The loſs to the ſervice would have been very great, had we not ſucceeded in our endeavours. Mr. Knight, midſhipman of the Windſor-Caſtle, who was in the boat with me, ſhewed much activity and addreſs on this occaſion, as well as firmneſs throughout the day.

The exploſion of a ſecond powder veſſel, equally unexpected, and with a ſhock even greater than the firſt, again put us in the moſt imminent danger of periſhing;

ing; and, when it is conſidered that we were within the ſphere of the falling timber, it is next to miraculous that no one piece, of the many which made the water foam round us, happened, to touch either the Swallow or the three boats with me.

Having now ſet fire to every thing within our reach, exhauſted our combuſtible preparations and our ſtrength to ſuch a degree that the men abſolutely dropped on the oars, we directed our courſe to join the fleet, running the gauntlet under a few ill-directed ſhot from the forts of Balaguier and Aiguilette, now occupied by the enemy; but, fortunately, without loſs of any kind, we proceeded to the place appointed for the embarkation of the troops, and took off as many as we could carry. It would be injuſtice to thoſe officers whom I have omitted to name, for their not having been ſo immediately under my eye, if I did not acknowledge myſelf indebted to them all for their extraordinary exertions in the execution of this great national object. The quickneſs with which the inflammation took effect on my ſignal, its extent and duration, are the beſt evidences that every officer and man was ready at his poſt, and firm under moſt perilous circumſtances: I therefore ſubjoin a liſt of the whole who were employed on this ſervice.

We can aſcertain that the fire extended to at leaſt ten ſail of the line; how much further we cannot ſay. The loſs of the general magazine, and of the quantity of pitch, tar, roſin, hemp, timber, cordage, and gunpowder, muſt conſiderably impede the equipment of the few ſhips that remain. I am ſorry to have been obliged to leave any; but I hope your lordſhip will be ſatisfied that we did as much as our circumſcribed means enabled us to do, in a limited time, preſſed as we were by a force ſo much ſuperior to us.

I have the honour to be, &c.

W. SYDNEY SMITH.

Right Hon. Lord Hood, &c. &c. &c.

Liſt of Ships of the Line, Frigates, and Sloops, of the Department of Toulon.

In the Road where the Engliſh Fleet entered Toulon.

SHIPS of the LINE.

Now with the Engliſh Fleet.

Commerce de Marſeilles	120 Guns.
Le Pompée	74

Burnt at Toulon.

Le Tonnant -	80
L'Heureux -	74
Le Centaur -	74
Le Commerce de Bourdeaux	74
Le Deſtin -	74
Le Lys -	74
Le Héros -	74
Le Thémiſtocle	74
Le Dugay Trouin	74

Sent into the French Ports in the Atlantic, with French Seamen, &c.

Le Patriote -	74
L'Apollon -	74
L'Orion -	74
L'Entreprenant -	74

Burnt at Leghorn.

Le Scipion -	74

Remaining at Toulon.

Le Genereux -	74

FRIGATES.—*Now with the Engliſh Fleet.*

Le Perle -	40
L'Aretheuſe -	40

Fitted out by the Engliſh.

L'Aurore -	32

Put into Commiſſion, by order of Lord Hood.

La Topaze -	32

Remaining in the Power of the Sardinians.

L'Alceſte -	32

SLOOPS.—*Now with the Engliſh Fleet.*

La Poulette -	26
Le Tarleſton -	14

Burnt at Toulon.

La Caroline -	20
L'Auguſte -	20

Fitted out by the Engliſh.

La Bellette -	26
La Proſelite -	24
La Sincere -	20
Le Mulet - -	20
La Mozelle -	20

Fitted out by the Neapolitans.

L'Emproye -	20

Fitted out by the Spaniards.

La Petite Aurore	18

Sent to Bourdeaux.

Le Pluvier - -	20

Fitting out when the Engliſh Fleet entered Toulon.

SHIPS of the LINE.—*Burnt at Toulon.*

Le Triomphant	80
Le Suffiſant -	74

Now with the Engliſh Fleet.

Le Puiſſant -	74

Remaining at Toulon.

Le Dauphin Royal	120

FRIGATE.—*Burnt at Toulon.*

La Serieuſe -	32

In the Harbour, in Want of Repair.

SHIPS.—*Burnt at Toulon.*

Le Mercure -	74
Le Couronne -	80
Le Conquerant -	74
Le Dictateur -	74

Remaining at Toulon.

Le Languedoc -	80
Le Cenſeur -	74
Le Guerrier -	74
Le Souverain -	74

Unfit

Unfit for Service.

L'Alcide - - 74

FRIGATES.—*Burnt at Toulon.*

Le Courageux - 32
L'Iphigenie - 32
L'Alerte - 16

Having on-board the Powder Magazines, burnt at Toulon.

L'Iris - - - 32
Le Montreal - 32

Fitted out by the Engliſh as a Bomb-Ketch.

La Lutine - 32

Remaining at Toulon.

La Bretonne - 18

In Commiſſion before the Engliſh Fleet entered Toulon.

SHIP.—*In the Levant.*

La Duqueſne - 74

FRIGATES and SLOOPS.—*In the Levant.*

La Sibille - 40
La Senſible - 32
La Melpomene - 40
La Minerve - 40
La Fortunée - 32
La Flèche - 24
La Fauvette - - 24

Taken by the Engliſh.

L'Imperieuſe - 40
La Modeſte - 32
L'Eclair - 20

At Ville Franche.

La Veſtale - 36
La Badine - 24
Le Hazard - 30

At Corſica.

La Mignonne - 32

At Cette.

La Brune - 24

In Ordinary at Toulon.

La Junon - 40

Building.

One Ship of - 74
Two Frigates - 40

CONSPIRACY IN SWEDEN.

STOCKHOLM, *Dec.* 20.

By virtue of an ordinance of the police, iſſued by the ſtadtholder of this city, M. Modee, all the French, whether reſident or ſtrangers here, were ordered to preſent themſelves on the 10th and 11th inſt. before the intendant of the police, to give in a liſt of their name, condition, and profeſſion, and the object of their coming into Sweden. Our government, however, did not think it neceſſary to impoſe on them any oath, ſuch as had been preſcribed to them at Peterſburg, Warſaw, and elſewhere.

We have, however, had a very recent proof, that the public tranquillity and ſafety of the ſtate are not more firmly eſtabliſhed in Sweden at this unfortunate period, than in other parts of Europe. A conſpiracy has been diſcovered in this city, the object of which was to effect a revolution, and change the form of government in Sweden. At the moment when it was going to break out, the Duke of Sudermania, regent of the kingdom, called the Reichſdrok, or Grand Seneſchal of Sweden, Count de Wachtmeiſter. His royal highneſs declared to him, "That the ſafety of the ſtate required on his part the arreſt of ſeveral ill-diſpoſed perſons, who had formed plans of revolution to overthrow the conſtitution, and plunge the country into trouble and confuſion; that his intention was, after ſecuring thoſe who were ſuſpected of being concerned in this conſpiracy, their trials ſhould be proceeded in according to the rules of right and the forms of cuſtom." This is in ſubſtance what has been learnt by the official communication which the Count de Wachtmeiſter has made to the court of juſtice, of which he is preſident. —With reſpect to the particular circumſtances of the plot—the real aim of its authors—the manner of its diſcovery—ſilence is obſerved, or rather people are amuſed by a number of reports and conjectures, which have nothing certain or authentic in them. The principal perſons arreſted in the night of the 17th and 18th of this month, are the Counteſs Madelaine of Rudenſkold, lady of the court of the Princeſs Sophia-Albertina, the regent's ſiſter; Lieutenant-colonel de Liſle and d'Ehrenſtrom; the ancient ſecretary of the king, d'Ehrenſtrom: alſo the commiſſary Seigneul; Forſter, innkeeper at the opera, and ſome other perſons of leſs conſequence, or ſervants, who were to be employed in the execution of the plan.

All theſe priſoners are watched with great care: their interrogatories are already commenced before the chamber of police, which is employed about them with as much activity as ſecrecy, Monſeigneur the regent, being deſirous to accelerate as much as poſſible, the examinations reſpecting an affair ſo important, to lay the reſult before the ſupreme attorney of juſtice, charged to execute the law againſt culprits. It is remarked, that the perſons implicated in this accuſation are almoſt all of the number of thoſe whom the deceaſed king honoured with his particular confidence.

December 27. The examination of the conſpirators continues with great activity; and M. Franck, director-general of the poſt-office, and ſecretary of ſtate, has been ſuddenly diſmiſſed, and replaced by M. Killigreen.

OF THE NECESSITY OF RANK, AND THE IMPOSSIBILITY OF EQUALITY, AMONG MEN.

WHETHER that equality of rank and condition which has of late been ſo loudly contended for, would be more agreeable to the order of nature, or more conducive to the happineſs and proſperity of mankind, may indeed be made a queſtion; but it is a queſtion which cannot receive different anſwers from men capable of reflecting without prejudice and partiality. A ſtate of perfect equality can ſubſiſt only among beings poſſeſſing equal talents and equal virtues; but ſuch beings are not men. Were all mankind under the conſtant influence of the laws of virtue, a diſtinction of ranks would be unneceſſary; but in that caſe civil government itſelf would likewiſe be unneceſſary, becauſe men would have attained all that perfection to which it is the object of civil government as well as of religion to guide them: every man then would be a law unto himſelf. But whilſt, in ſo many breaſts, the ſelfiſh paſſions predominate over thoſe which are ſocial, violence muſt be reſtrained by authority; and there can be no authority without a diſtinction of ranks, ſuch as may at all times influence the public opinion.

It is aſſerted, that government is founded only on opinion; and that this opinion is of two kinds, opinion of intereſt, and opinion of right. When a people are perſuaded that it is their intereſt to ſupport the government under which they live, that government muſt be very ſtable. But, among the worthleſs and unthinking part of the community, this perſuaſion has ſeldom place. All men, however, have a notion of rights—of a right to property, and a right to power; and when a nation conſiders a certain order of men as having a right to that eminence in which they are placed, this opinion, call it prejudice or what you will, contributes much to the peace and happineſs of civil ſociety. There are many, however, who think otherwiſe, and imagine, that the ſociety in which the greateſt equality prevails muſt always be the moſt ſecure. Theſe men conceive it to be the buſineſs of a good government to diſtribute as equally as poſſible thoſe bleſſings which bounteous nature offers to all. It may readily be allowed that this reaſoning is concluſive; but the great queſtion returns, How far can equality prevail in a ſociety which is ſecure? and what is poſſible to be done in the equal diſtribution of the bleſſings of nature? till theſe queſtions be anſwered, we gain nothing by declaiming on the rights and equality of men; and the anſwers which have ſometimes been given to them ſuppoſe a degree of perfection in human nature, which, if it were real, would make all civil inſtitutions uſeleſs, as well as the reveries of thoſe reformers. The conduct of the democratic ſtates of Pagan antiquity, together with the oppreſſive anarchy and ſhameful violences which we have ſeen and ſtill ſee in a neighbouring kingdom, will be conſidered by many as a full and ſatisfactory anſwer, deduced from experience, to all the ſchemes of the viſionary theoriſt: ſuch facts at leaſt, render the abolition of the order of nobility a matter of more importance, and of infinitely greater difficulty, than thoſe who plead for it are diſpoſed to allow.

It is an opinion not uncommon, and at leaſt plauſible, that the nobility of a well-regulated ſtate is the beſt ſecurity againſt monarchial deſpotiſm or lawleſs uſurpation on the one hand, and the confuſion of democratic inſolence on the other. Self-intereſt is the moſt powerful principle in the human breaſt; and it is obviouſly the intereſt of ſuch men to preſerve that balance of power in ſociety upon which the very exiſtence of their order depends. Corrupted as the preſent age confeſſedly is, a very recent inſtance could be given, in which the Britiſh houſe of peers reſcued at once the ſovereign and the people from the threatened tyranny of a faction. Yet a celebrated author has lately exhibited, in few, but forcible, words, ſome of the common arguments againſt this

diſtinction of ranks.—"Nobility (ſays he), a diſtinction equally impolitic and immoral, and worthy of the times of ignorance and of rapine, which gave it birth, is a violation of the rights of that part of the nation that is deprived of it; and as equality becomes a ſtimulus towards diſtinction, ſo on the other hand this is the radical vice of a government and the ſource of a variety of evils. It is almoſt impoſſible that there ſhould be any uncommon inſtances of virtue in a ſtate, when recompences belong excluſively to a certain claſs of ſociety, and when it coſts no more to obtain theſe than the trouble of being born. Amongſt this liſt of privileged perſons, virtues, talents, and genius, muſt of courſe be much leſs frequent than in the other claſſes, ſince, without the poſſeſſion of any of theſe qualities, they who belong to it are ſtill honoured and rewarded. Thoſe who profit by this abſurd ſubverſion of principles, and thoſe who loſe by this unjuſt diſtribution of favours, which ſeem to have grown into a right, cannot have any other than falſe, immoral, and pernicious, ideas concerning merit."

A perfect equality, however, in rank and fortune has ſeldom been contended for, except by the moſt ignorant enthuſiaſts. It is indeed doubtful whether it could poſſibly exiſt. The more moderate and rational reformers have acknowledged, that as theſe differences have always exiſted in ſome way or other, ſo, from the infinite variety of talents and attainments in the world, we have reaſon to expect they will exiſt in every form of government and among every people. The queſtion, therefore, is reduced to this: Whether the preſent mode of diſtinction, or any other which could be inſtituted in its ſtead, be upon the whole the beſt? That the preſent is not perfect, or wholly without faults, few will be ſanguine enough to contradict: and a wiſe man in the ſober hour of philoſophical reflection will ſcarcely preſume to aſſert, that any other ſcheme which human ingenuity can plan would be wholly without imperfection, or altogether free from error. The caſe is, the errors of our own ſyſtem are preſent, and on this account we ſee and feel them with peculiar force: the other plan we look forward to, perhaps in too ſanguine a manner, and we probably forget, in the deluſive heat of imagination, that, if diſtinction depended entirely on merit, we ſhould ſcarcely find a ſociety of men ſo honeſt, or ſo able, as always to reward it according to its deſerts; or if this were poſſible, as perhaps in the nature of things it is not, ſuch is the ſelf-partiality of the generality of men, that few would think he were dealt juſtly by if he were not promoted as well as his neighbour; and it is clearly impoſſible to promote every one. For ſuch reaſons then, it is unqueſtionably ſafer to remain as we are, as we know the evils that attend our preſent ſituation, and are ſtill able to bear them, rather than to hazard a change, which, with ſome benefits, might alſo perhaps increaſe the troubles, and deſtroy many of the bleſſings, of ſocial life.

The diſtinction of rank and honour is neceſſary in every well-governed ſtate, in order to reward ſuch as are eminent for their ſervices to the public, in a manner the moſt deſirable to individuals, and yet without burden to the community; exciting thereby an ambitious, yet laudable ardour, and generous emulation, in others. And emulation, or virtuous ambition, is a ſpring of action which, however dangerous or invidious in a mere republic or under a deſpotic ſway, will certainly be attended with good effects under a free monarchy; where, without deſtroying its exiſtence, its exceſſes may be continually reſtrained by that ſuperior power from which all honour is derived. Such a ſpirit, when nationally diffuſed, gives life and vigour to the community; it ſets all the wheels of government in motion, which, under a wiſe regulator, may be directed to any beneficial purpoſe: and thereby every individual may be made ſubſervient to the public good, while he principally means to promote his own particular views. A body of nobility is alſo more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed and compounded conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both the crown and the people, as was the caſe with the

the barons, by forming a barrier to withſtand the encroachments of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of dignity, which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it riſes. It is this aſcending and contracting proportion that adds ſtability to any government; for when the departure is ſudden from one extreme to another, we may pronounce that ſtate to be precarious. The nobility, therefore, are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to ſupport the throne; and, if that falls, they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. And, ſince titles of nobility are thus expedient in the ſtate, it is alſo expedient that their owners ſhould form an independent and ſeparate branch of the legiſlature. If they were confounded with the great maſs of the people, and like them had only a vote in electing repreſentatives, their privileges would ſoon be borne down and overwhelmed by the popular torrent, which would effectually level all diſtinctions. It is therefore highly neceſſary that the body of nobles ſhould have a diſtinct aſſembly, diſtinct deliberations, and diſtinct powers, from the commons.—Theſe remarks, at a time like the preſent, deſerve our ſerious attention; nor do we ſuppoſe our readers will be diſpleaſed, if we add the following obſervations on the ſubject.

Birth and nobility are a ſtronger obligation to virtue than is laid upon meaner perſons. A vicious or diſhonourable nobleman is in effect perjured; for his honour is his oath.

Under the patriarchial ſcheme, and at the firſt ſetting out of the tribes, the heads of families had their particular eſcutcheons, and their genealogies recorded with the utmoſt exactneſs: even the Ancient of days confirmed this; he often put his people in mind of the glory and virtues of their forefathers; and hath ſet a precedent for attainders, by viſiting the third and fourth generation.

It is a vulgar error to ſuppoſe, that his bleſſed Son choſe his followers out of the meaneſt of the people, becauſe mechanics; for this was part of the education of every Jewiſh nobleman: two of the number, being his kinſmen, were of the royal houſe of David; one was a Roman gentleman, and another of the royal family of Syria; and for the reſt, he had the ſame right of creation as his father and his vicegerents, of advancing the poor to honour, and of exalting the lowly and meek.

The ancient Greeks and Romans paid great regard to nobility; but, when the levelling principle obtained, and the people ſhared power and honour, thoſe ſtates ſoon dwindled and came to ruin. And in preſent Rome, great reſpect is paid to the renowned families of Colonna and Cæſarini. In Venice, the notion of nobility is carried ſo high as to become inconſiſtent with a republican ſcheme. The Spaniards pay more regard to their old nobles than to their old Chriſtians; and the French were but little behind them. What was ſaid of the Duke of Montmorency by Henry IV. "that he was a better gentleman than himſelf," was, perhaps, the reaſon why the laſt heir of ſo illuſtrious a family was cut off, to make the houſe of Bourbon the firſt in France.—The Welſh, Iriſh, and Polanders, are remarkable for their attachments to blood and pedigree.

It is for the ſake of the meaneſt of our people, that the high value and regard for quality ſhould be kept up; for they are beſt governed by thoſe who ſeem formed for power: the robe of authority ſits eaſy upon them, and ſubmiſſion is as much our choice as our duty; but upſtarts prove the worſt of tyrants.

The ancient legiſlators, who ſtudied human nature, thought it adviſeable, for the better government of ſtates, that the people ſhould be divided into the noble and the common. They judged it for the univerſal good of mankind, that the valiant and the wiſe ſhould be ſeparated from the reſt, and appointed for council and command.

To this we take it that the inſtitution of nobility is owing in all countries; even thoſe nations which we are pleaſed to call ſavage, diſtinguiſh the wiſe and the valiant, obey them

counſellors, and commanders, which is placing them in the rank of nobles.

Some, we know, look upon the inſtitution of nobility to be one of the groſſeſt impoſitions upon the common ſenſe of mankind; they confine it indeed to hereditary nobility; they allow, that thoſe who have done their country any ſignal ſervice, ſhould be diſtinguiſhed with honours, but it ſeems an abſurdity to them that a man ſhould be born a legiſlator, as if wiſdom or a knowledge of government run in the blood. But if they would conſider how ſtrong the love of poſterity is planted in human nature, they muſt allow that nothing can be a ſtronger motive to great and worthy actions, than the notion that a man's poſterity will reap the honour and profit of his labours. Beſides, we are to ſuppoſe that men born to honours and a high fortune may be bred up in generous ſentiments, and formed for the ſtation they are to fill; that they muſt be ſtrangers to thoſe vicious falſehoods and corruptions which neceſſity firſt, and then habit, puts men upon practiſing, whoſe lives are ſpent in purſuit of their fortunes. We will own, notwithſtanding all theſe advantages, that many of them are like rocks whoſe heads are in the clouds, but are ſo barren that they are quite incapable of producing any thing; but in general, were their minds only upon a level with thoſe of other men, we ſhould expect much better fruit from them.

As authority is founded in opinion, all wiſe commonwealths have been extremely jealous in keeping up the honour of their nobility. Wherever they become baſe, effeminate, cowardly, or ſervile, their authority ſinks, they fall into contempt; then the people begin to conſider them as uſeleſs to government, and look upon their privileges as a grievance to ſociety, and perhaps they think how to get rid of them, as happened in the commonwealth of Florence, where, after the expulſion of the Duke of Athens, a petty tyrant of that city, many of the nobility having behaved ſervilely to him, and inſolently to the people, were degraded from the ſenate and the magiſtracy, and rendered incapable of holding any employment in the commonwealth.

Father Paul, the Venetian, ſays, that you ſhould keep your nobility free from taint, or have no nobility at all: that the high employments of the commonwealth ſhould be beſtowed amongſt the moſt ancient families, unleſs where a perſon ſhould diſtinguiſh himſelf by ſome ſignal ſervice to the ſtate. Such a man would think himſelf ſufficiently rewarded by the honour of being put upon a foot with the ancient nobility; and the nobility would be pleaſed to find that no commoner, except ſome of great reputation and merit, was to hold any of the employments uſually poſſeſſed by their body. If the perſon ſo preferred ſhould not be rich enough to ſupport the dignity of the office, the ſtate may give him a penſion, but by no means ſhould employments be made lucrative; which not only exhauſt and weaken the commonwealth, but, wherever the high employments are ſolicited for profit, the nobility loſe their generous ſentiments, and it is a means of introducing corruption amongſt them.

The origin of nobility in Europe is by ſome referred to the Goths; who, after they had ſeized a part of Europe, rewarded their captains with titles of honour, to diſtinguiſh them from the common people.—The right of peerage ſeems to have been originally territorial; that is, annexed to lands, honours, caſtles, manors, and the like; the proprietors and poſſeſſors of which were (in right of thoſe eſtates) allowed to be peers of the realm, and were ſummoned to parliament to do ſuit and ſervice to their ſovereign: and, when the land was alienated, the dignity paſſed with it as appendant. Thus in England the biſhops ſtill ſit in the houſe of lords in right of ſucceſſion to ancient baronies annexed, or ſuppoſed to be annexed, to their epiſcopal lands; and thus in 11 Henry VI. the poſſeſſion of the caſtle of Arundel was adjudged to confer an earldom on its poſſeſſor. But afterwards, when *alienations* grew to be frequent, the dignity of peerage was confined to the lineage of the party ennobled, and inſtead of territorial became perſonal.

Actual

Actual proof of a tenure by barony became no longer neceſſary to conſtitute a lord of parliament; but the record of the writ of ſummons to him or his anceſtors was admitted as a ſufficient evidence of the tenure.

Peers of Great Britain are now created either by writ or by patent: for thoſe who claim by preſcription muſt ſuppoſe either a writ or patent made to their anceſtors; though by length of time it is loſt. The creation by writ, or the king's letter, is a ſummons to attend the houſe of peers, by the ſtile and title of that barony which the king is pleaſed to confer: that by patent is a royal grant to a ſubject of any dignity and degree of peerage. The creation by writ is the more ancient way; but a man is not ennobled thereby, unleſs he actually take his ſeat in the houſe of lords; and ſome are of opinion that there muſt be at leaſt two writs of ſummons, and a ſitting in two diſtinct parliaments, to evidence an hereditary barony: and therefore the moſt uſual, becauſe the ſureſt, way, is to grant the dignity by patent, which endures to a man and his heirs according to the limitation thereof, though he never himſelf makes uſe of it. Yet it is frequent to call up the eldeſt ſon of a peer to the houſe of lords by writ of ſummons, in the name of his father's barony: becauſe in that caſe there is no danger of his children loſing the nobility in caſe he never takes his ſeat; for they will ſucceed to their grandfather. Creation by writ has alſo one advantage over that by patent; for a perſon created by writ holds the dignity to him and his heirs, without any words to that purpoſe in the writ; but in letters patent there muſt be words to direct the inheritance, elſe the dignity endures only to the grantee for life. For a man or woman may be created noble for their own lives, and the dignity not deſcend to their heirs at all, or deſcend only to ſome particular heirs: as where a perage is limited to a man and the heirs male of his body by Elizabeth his preſent lady, and not to ſuch heirs by any former or future wife.

Let us next take a view of a few of the principal incidents attending the nobility:—and firſt, we muſt obſerve, that in criminal caſes a nobleman ſhall be tried by his peers. The great are always obnoxious to popular envy: were they to be judged by the people, they might be in danger from the prejudice of their judges; and would moreover be deprived of the privilege of the meaneſt ſubjects, that of being tried by their equals, which is ſecured to all the realm by magna charta, c. 29. It is ſaid, that this does not extend to biſhops; who, though they are lords of parliament, and ſit there by virtue of their baronies which they hold *jure eccleſiæ*, yet are not ennobled in blood, and conſequently not peers with the nobility. As to peereſſes, no proviſion was made for their trial when accuſed of treaſon or felony, till after Eleanor ducheſs of Glouceſter, wife to the lord protector, had been accuſed of treaſon, and found guilty of witchcraft, in an eccleſiaſtical ſynod, through the intrigues of cardinal Beaufort. This very extraordinary trial gave occaſion to a ſpecial ſtatute, 20 Henry VI. c. 9. which enacts, that peereſſes, either in their own right or by marriage, ſhall be tried before the ſame judicature as peers of the realms. If a woman, noble in her own right, marries a commoner, ſhe ſtill remains noble, and ſhall be tried by her peers; but if ſhe be only noble by marriage, then by a ſecond marriage with a commoner ſhe loſes her dignity; for as by marriage it is gained, by marriage it is alſo loſt. Yet if a ducheſs-dowager marries a baron, ſhe continues a ducheſs ſtill; for all the nobility are pares, and therefore it is no degradation. A peer or peereſs (either in her own right or by marriage) cannot be arreſted in civil caſes: and they have alſo many peculiar privileges annexed to their peerage in the courſe of judicial proceedings. A peer ſitting in judgment, gives not his verdict upon oath, like an ordinary juryman, but upon his honour; he anſwers alſo to bills in chancery upon his honour, and not upon his oath: but, when he is examined as a witneſs either in civil or criminal caſes, he muſt be ſworn; for the reſpect which the law ſhews to the honour of a peer does not extend ſo far

far as to overturn a ſettled maxim, that *in judicio non creditur niſi juratus.*

A peer cannot loſe his nobility but by death or attainder; though there was an inſtance in the reign of Edward IV. of the degradation of George Nevile duke of Bedford by act of parliament, on account of his poverty, which rendered him unable to ſupport his dignity. But this is a ſingular inſtance: which ſerves at the ſame time, by having happened, to ſhew the power of parliament; and, by having happened but once, to ſhew how tender the parliament hath been in exerting ſo high a power. It hath been ſaid indeed, that if a baron waſtes his eſtate, ſo that he is not able to ſupport the degree, the king may degrade him; but it is expreſsly held by later authorities, that a peer cannot be degraded but by act of parliament.

Anton. Matthæus obſerves, that nobility, among the Romans, was a quite different thing from what it is among us. The nobles, among the Romans, were either thoſe raiſed to the magiſtrature, or deſcended from magiſtrates: there was no ſuch thing as nobility by patent.

Bartoli ſays, that doctors, after they have held a profeſſor's chair in a univerſity for twenty years, become noble; and are entitled to all the rights of counts.

But this claim is not admitted at court, &c. though Bartoli's ſentiments be backed with thoſe of ſeveral other authors, particularly Chaſſanæus in his *Conſuetudin. Burgundiæ*; *Boyer ſur la Coutume de Berry*, *Faber C. de Dig. Def.* 9. &c. which laſt, however, reſtrains Bartoli's rule to doctors in law, and princes phyſicians.

By an edict of the French king in 1669, it is declared, that trade ſhall not derogate from nobility, provided the perſon do not ſell by retail.

In Bretagne, by ancient cuſtom, a nobleman loſes nothing by trading even in retail; but he re-aſſumes all his rights as ſoon as he ceaſes traffic, his nobility having ſlept all the time.

In Germany, a woman, not noble by birth, doth not become a counteſs or baroneſs by marrying a count or baron: a lady of the higher degree indeed becomes a princeſs by marrying a prince; but this doth not hold of a lady of the lower nobility.

On the coaſt of Malabar, children are only capable of being noble by the mother's ſide; it being allowed them to take as many huſbands as they pleaſe, and to quit them whenever they think good.

In England, the word *nobleman* is of a narrower import than in other countries; being confined to perſons above the degree of knights; whereas, abroad, it comprehends not only knights, but what we ſimply call *gentlemen.*

The Venetian nobleſſe is famous: it is in this that the ſovereignty of the ſtate reſides. It is divided into three claſſes. The firſt only comprehends twenty-four families. The ſecond includes the deſcendants of all thoſe who were entered in the golden book, in 1289, and deſtined to govern the ſtate, which then began to be ariſtocratic. The third conſiſts of ſuch as have bought the dignity of noble Venetians. This laſt claſs is only admitted to the inferior employs; the two former to all indifferently.

The Roman nobility, by way of diſtinction, wore an half-moon upon their ſhoes, eſpecially thoſe of Patrician rank; and the Grecian nobility were called Ευπαλῃδαι, as being deſcended from old heroic anceſtors, famous in hiſtory. Such were the *Praxiergidæ*, *Etrobutidæ*, *Alcmæonidæ*, &c. who had many privileges annexed to their quality; but from which all orders of ſociety were brought to infer, that ſuch honours were only to be obtained by ſuperior wiſdom in council, or by glorious exploits in war.

REMARKABLE EFFECTS OF AN ACTIVE COMMERCE.

A NATION which remains paſſive in her commerce is at the mercy of thoſe who are active, and muſt be greatly favoured indeed by natural advantages, or by a conſtant flux of gold and ſilver from her mines, to be able to ſupport a correſpondence not entirely hurtful to the augmentation of her wealth. When we look upon the wide field which here opens to our

view, we are perplexed with too great a variety of objects. In one part, we ſee a decent and comely beginning of induſtry; wealth flowing gently in to recompence ingenuity; numbers both augmenting, and every one becoming daily more uſeful to another; agriculture proportionally extending itſelf; no violent revolutions; no exorbitant profits; no inſolence among the rich; no exceſſive miſery among the poor; multitudes employed in producing; great economy upon conſumption; and all the inſtruments of luxury, daily produced by the hands of the diligent, going out of the country for the ſervice of ſtrangers; not remaining at home for the gratification of ſenſuality. At laſt the augmentations come inſenſibly to a ſtop. Then theſe rivers of wealth, which were in briſk circulation through the whole world, and which returned to this trading nation as blood returns to the heart, only to be thrown out again by new pulſations, begin to be obſtructed in their courſe; and, flowing abroad more ſlowly than before, come to form ſtagnations at home. Theſe, impatient of reſtraint, ſoon burſt out into domeſtic circulation. Upon this cities ſwell in magnificence of buildings; the face of the country is adorned with palaces, and becomes covered with groves; luxury ſhines triumphant in every part; inequality becomes more ſtriking to the eye; and want and miſery appear more deformed from the contraſt: even fortune grows more whimſical in her inconſtancy; the beggar of the other day now rides in his coach; and he who was born in a bed of ſtate, is ſeen to die in a gaol or in an alms-houſe. Such are the effects of great domeſtic circulation.

The ſtateſman looks about with amazement; he who was wont to conſider himſelf as the firſt man in the ſociety in every reſpect, perceives himſelf, perhaps, eclipſed by the luſtre of private wealth, which avoids his graſp when he attempts to ſeize it. This makes his government more complex and more difficult to be carried on; he muſt now avail himſelf of art and addreſs, as well as of power and force. By the help of cajoling and intrigues, he gets a little into debt; this lays a foundation for public credit, which, growing by degrees, and in its progreſs aſſuming many new forms, becomes, from the moſt tender beginnings, a moſt formidable monſter, ſtriking terror into thoſe who cheriſhed it in its infancy. Upon this, as upon a triumphant war-horſe, the ſtateſman gets aſtride; he then appears formidable a-new; his head turns giddy; he is choaked with the duſt he has raiſed; and, at the moment he is ready to fall, to his utmoſt aſtoniſhment and ſurpriſe, he finds a ſtrong monied intereſt of his own creating, which, inſtead of ſwallowing him up as he apprehended, flies to his ſupport. Through this he gets the better of all oppoſition, he eſtabliſhes taxes, multiplies them, mortgages his fund of ſubſiſtence; either becomes a bankrupt, and riſes again from his aſhes; or, if he be leſs audacious, he ſtands trembling and tottering for a while on the brink of the political precipice. From one or the other of theſe perilous ſituations, he begins to diſcover an endleſs path, which, after a multitude of windings, ſtill returns into itſelf, and continues an equal courſe through this vaſt labyrinth.

It is now full time to leave off rhapſody, and return to reaſoning and cool enquiry concerning the more immediate and more general effect and revolutions produced by the opening of a foreign trade in a nation of induſtry. The firſt and moſt ſenſible alteration will be an increaſe of demand for manufacturers, becauſe by ſupplying the wants of ſtrangers, the number of conſumers will now be conſiderably augmented. What again will follow upon this, muſt depend upon circumſtances.

If this revolution in the ſtate of demand ſhould prove too violent, the conſequence of it will be to raiſe demand; if it ſhould prove gradual, it will increaſe it. This diſtinction is well underſtood, and the conſequence appears juſt: for, if the ſupply do not increaſe in proportion to the demand, a competition will enſue among the demanders; which is the common effect of ſuch ſudden revo-

lutions.

lutions. If, on the other hand, a gentle increaſe of demand ſhould be accompanied with a proportional ſupply, the whole induſtrious ſociety will grow in vigour, and in wholeſome ſtature, without being ſenſible of any great advantage or inconveniency; the change of their circumſtances will even be imperceptible.

The immediate effects of the violent revolution will, in this example, be flattering to ſome and diſagreeable to others. Wealth will be found daily to augment, from the riſing of prices, in many branches of induſtry. This will encourage the induſtrious claſſes, and the idle conſumers at home will complain, but it will ſerve the lower claſſes of the people, in providing them with a certain means of ſubſiſtence. Let us next examine in what reſpect even the higher claſſes will be made likewiſe to feel the good effects of this general change, although at firſt they may ſuffer a temporary inconveniency from it.

Farmers will have a greater difficulty in finding ſervants, who, inſtead of labouring the ground, will chooſe to turn themſelves to manufactures. This may be conſidered in the light of purging the lands of ſuperfluous mouths; but every conſequence in this great chain of politics draws other conſequences after it; and, as they follow one another, things put on different faces, which affect claſſes differently. The purging of the land is but one of the firſt; here follows another.—The deſertion of the hands employed in a trifling agriculture will at firſt, no doubt, embarraſs the farmers; but in a little time every thing becomes balanced in a trading nation, becauſe here every induſtrious man muſt advance in proſperity, in ſpite of all general combinations of circumſtances.

In the caſe before us, the relative profits upon farming muſt ſoon become greater than formerly, becauſe of this additional expence which muſt affect the whole claſs of farmers; conſequently, this additional expence, inſtead of turning out to be a loſs to either landlord or farmer, will, after ſome little time, turn out to the advantage of both; becauſe the produce of the ground, being indiſpenſibly neceſſary to every body, muſt in every article increaſe in its value. Thus in a ſhort time accounts will be nearly balanced on all hands; that is to ſay, the ſame proportion of wealth will, *cæteris paribus*, continue the ſame among the induſtrious. We ſay among the induſtrious; for thoſe who are either idle, or even negligent, will be great loſers. A proprietor of land, inattentive to the cauſes of his farmer's additional expence, may very imprudently ſuffer his rents to fall, inſtead of aſſiſting him on a proper occaſion, in order to make them afterwards riſe the higher. Thoſe who live upon a determined income in money, and who are nowiſe employed in traffic, nor in any ſcheme of induſtry, will, by the augmentation of prices, be found in worſe circumſtances than before.

In a trading nation every man muſt turn his talents to account, or he will undoubtedly be left behind in this univerſal emulation, in which the moſt induſtrious, the moſt ingenious, and the moſt frugal, will conſtantly carry off the prize. This conſideration ought to be a ſpur to every body. The richeſt men in a trading nation have no ſecurity againſt poverty; we mean proportional poverty! for tho' they diminiſh nothing of their income, yet, by not increaſing it in proportion to others, they loſe their rank in wealth, and from the firſt claſs in which they ſtood they will ſlide inſenſibly down to a lower. There is one conſequence of an additional beneficial trade, which raiſes demand and increaſes wealth; but, if we ſuppoſe no proportional augmentation of ſupply, it will prove at beſt but an airy dream which laſts for a moment; and when the gilded ſcene is paſſed away, numberleſs are the inconveniences which are ſeen to follow.

We ſhall now point out the natural conſequences of this augmentation of wealth drawn from foreign nations, when the ſtateſman remains inattentive to increaſe the ſupply both of food and manufactures, in proportion to the augmentation of mouths, and of the demand for the produce of induſtry. In ſuch a ſituation profits will

daily

daily ſwell, and every ſcheme for reducing them within the bounds of moderation, will be looked upon as a hurtful and unpopular meaſure: be it ſo; but let us examine the conſequences. We have obſerved that the riſe of demand for manufactures, naturally increaſes the value of work: now we muſt add, that under ſuch circumſtances, the augmentation of riches in a country, either not capable of improvement as to the ſoil, or where precautions have not been taken for facilitating a multiplication of inhabitants, by the importation of ſubſiſtence, will be productive of the moſt calamitous conſequences. On one ſide, this wealth will effectually diminiſh the maſs of the food before produced; and on the other, will increaſe the number of uſeleſs conſumers. The firſt of theſe circumſtances will raiſe the demand for food; and the ſecond will diminiſh the number of uſeful free hands, and conſequently raiſe the price of manufactures: here are ſhortly the outlines of this progreſs.

The more rich and luxurious a people are, the more delicate they become in their manner of living; if they fed on bread formerly, they will now feed on meat; if they fed on meat, they will now feed on fowl. The ſame ground which feeds a hundred with bread, and a proportional quantity of animal food, will not maintain an equal number of delicate livers. Food muſt then become more ſcarce; demand for it riſes; the rich are always the ſtrongeſt in the market; they conſume the food, and the poor are forced to ſtarve. Here the wide door to modern diſtreſs opens; to wit, a hurtful competition for ſubſiſtence. Farther, when a people become rich, they think leſs of economy; a number of uſeleſs ſervants are hired, to become an additional dead weight on conſumption; and, when their ſtarving countrymen cannot ſupply the extravagance of the rich ſo cheaply as other nations, they either import inſtruments of foreign luxury, or ſeek to enjoy them out of their own country, and thereby make reſtitution of their gains.

Is it not therefore evident, that if, before things come to this paſs, additional ſubſiſtence be not provided by one method or other, the number of inhabitants muſt diminiſh; although riches may daily increaſe by a balance of additional matter ſuppoſed to be brought into the country in conſequence of the hitherto beneficial foreign trade? This is not all. We ſay farther, that the beneficial trade will laſt for a time only. For the infallible conſequence of the riſe of prices at home will be, that thoſe nations which at firſt conſumed your manufactures, perceiving the gradual increaſe of their price, will begin to work for themſelves; or finding out your rivals who can ſupply them cheaper, will open their doors to them. Theſe again, perceiving the great advantages gained by your traders, will begin to ſupply the market; and ſince every thing muſt be cheaper in countries where we do not ſuppoſe the concurrence of all the circumſtances mentioned above, theſe nations will ſupplant you, and be enriched in their turn.

Here comes a new revolution. Trade is come to a ſtop: what then becomes of all the hands which were formerly employed in ſupplying the foreign demands? Were revolutions ſo ſudden as we are obliged to repreſent them, all would go to wreck; in proportion as they happen by quicker or ſlower degrees, the inconveniences are greater or ſmaller. Prices, we have ſeen, are made to riſe by competition. If the competition of the ſtrangers was what raiſed them, the diſtreſs upon the manufacturers will be in proportion to the ſuddenneſs of their deſerting the market. If the competition was divided between the ſtrangers and the home-conſumers, the inconveniences which enſue will be leſs; becauſe the deſertion of the ſtrangers will be in ſome meaſure made up by an increaſe of home-conſumption, which will follow upon the fall of prices. And if, in the third caſe, the natives have been ſo imprudent, as not only to ſupport a competition with the ſtrangers, and thereby diſguſt them from coming any more to

market, but even to continue the competition between themſelves, the whole loſs ſuſtained by the revolution will be national. Wealth will ceaſe to augment; but the inconveniences, in place of being felt by the manufacturers, will only affect the ſtate; thoſe will continue in affluence, extolling the generoſity of their countrymen, and deſpiſing the poverty of the ſtrangers who had enriched them.

Domeſtic luxury will here prove an expedient for preſerving from ruin the induſtrious part of a people, who in ſubſiſting themſelves had enriched their country. No change will follow in their condition; they will go on with a painful aſſiduity to labour: and, if the conſequences of it become now hurtful to one part of the ſtate, they muſt at leaſt be allowed to be eſſentially neceſſary for the ſupport of the other. But that luxury is no neceſſary concomitant of foreign trade, in a nation where the true principles of it are underſtood, will appear very plain, from a contraſt we are now going to point out, in the example of a modern ſtate, renowned for its commerce and frugality. The country is Holland.

A ſet of induſtrious and frugal people were aſſembled in a country by nature ſubject to many inconveniences, the removing of which neceſſarily employed abundance of hands. Their ſituation upon the continent, the power of their former maſters, and the ambition of their neighbours, obliged them to keep great bodies of troops. Theſe two articles added to the numbers of the community, without either enriching the ſtate by their labour exported, or producing food for themſelves or countrymen. The ſcheme of a commonwealth was calculated to draw together the induſtrious; but it has been ſtill more uſeful in ſubſiſting them: the republican form of government being there greatly ſubdivided, veſts authority ſufficient in every part of it, to make ſuitable proviſion for their own ſubſiſtence; and the tie which unites them, regards only matters of public concern. Had the whole been governed by one ſovereign, or by one council, this important matter never could have been effectuated.

It would be impoſſible for the moſt able miniſter that ever lived, to provide nouriſhment for a country ſo extended as France, or even as England, ſuppoſing theſe as fully peopled as Holland is; even although it ſhould be admitted that a ſufficient quantity of food might be found in other countries for their ſubſiſtence. The enterpriſe would be too great, abuſes would multiply; the conſequence would be, that the inhabitants would die for want. But in Holland the caſe is different: every little town takes care of its own inhabitants; and this care being the object of application and profit to ſo many perſons, is accompliſhed with ſucceſs. When once it is laid down as a maxim in a country, that food muſt of neceſſity be got from abroad in order to feed the inhabitants at home, the corn-trade becomes conſiderable, and at the ſame time certain, regular, and permanent. This was the caſe in Holland: as the inhabitants were induſtrious, the neceſſary conſequence has been, a very extraordinary multiplication; and at the ſame time ſuch an abundance of grain, that, inſtead of being in want themſelves, they often ſupply their neighbours. There are many examples of England's being ſupplied with grain from thence; and, which is ſtill more extraordinary, from the re-exportation of the very produce of its own fruitful ſoil.

It is therefore evident, that the only way to ſupport induſtry, is to provide a ſupply of ſubſiſtence, conſtantly proportional to the demand that may be made for it. This is a precaution indiſpenſably neceſſary for preventing hurtful competition. This is the particular care of the Dutch: ſo long as it can be effectual, their ſtate can fear no decline; but whenever they come to be diſtreſſed in the markets, upon which they depend for ſubſiſtence, they will ſink into ruin. It is by mere dint of frugality, cheap and parſimonious living, that the navigation of this induſtrious people is ſupported. Conſtant employment, and an accumulation of almoſt imperceptible gains,

gains, fill their coffers with wealth, in ſpite of the large out-goings to which their own proper nouriſhment yearly forces them. The large profits upon induſtry in other countries, which are no proof of generoſity, but a fatal effect of a ſcanty ſubſiſtence, is far from dazzling their eyes. They ſeldom are found in the liſt of competitors at any foreign port; if they have their cargo to diſpoſe of, they wait with patience in their own veſſels, conſuming their own proviſions, and at laſt accept of what others have left. It may be ſaid, that many other circumſtances concur in favour of the Dutch, beſides the article of ſubſiſtence. Without diſputing this matter, it may be obſerved, that if a computation be made of the hands employed in providing ſubſiſtence, and of thoſe who are ſeverally taken up in ſupplying every other want, their numbers will be found nearly to balance one another in the moſt luxurious countries. From this we may conclude, that the article of food, among the lower claſſes, muſt bear a very high proportion to all the other articles of their conſumption; and therefore a diminution upon the price of ſubſiſtence, muſt be of infinite conſequence to manufacturers who are obliged to buy it. From this conſideration, let us judge of the conſequence of ſuch augmentations upon the price of grain as are familiar to us; thirty or forty per cent. ſeems nothing. Now this augmentation operates upon two-thirds, at leaſt, of the whole expence of a labouring man: let any one who lives in tolerable affluence make the application of this to himſelf, and examine how he would manage his affairs, if, by accidents of rains or winds, his expences were to riſe thirty per cent. without a poſſibility of reſtraining them; for this is unfortunately the caſe with all the lower claſſes. From whence it may be concluded, that the keeping food cheap, and ſtill more the preſerving it at all times at an equal ſtandard, is the fountain of the wealth of Holland; and that any hurtful competition in this article, muſt beget a diſorder which will affect the whole manufacturers, even of the moſt opolent county in the univerſe.

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

CATHERINE, THE FIRST EMPRESS OF RUSSIA.

CATHERINE I. Empreſs of Ruſſia, was the natural daughter of a country girl; born at Ringen, a ſmall village near Dorpt, in Livonia. The year of her birth is uncertain; but, according to her own account, ſhe came into the world on the 5th of April, 1687. Her original name was Martha, which ſhe changed for Catherine when ſhe embraced the Greek religion. Count Roſen, a lieutenant-colonel in the Swediſh ſervice, who owned the village of Ringen, ſupported, according to the cuſtom of the country, both the mother and the child; and was, for that reaſon, ſuppoſed by many perſons to have been her father. She loſt her mother when ſhe was but three years old; and, as Count Roſen died about the ſame time, ſhe was left in ſo deſtitute a ſituation, that the pariſh-clerk of the village received her into his houſe. Soon afterwards Gluck, Lutheran miniſter of Marienburgh, happening, in a journey through thoſe parts, to ſee the foundling, took her under his protection, brought her up in his family, and employed her in attending his children. In 1701, and about the 14th year of her age, ſhe married a dragoon of the Swediſh garriſon of Marienburgh. Many different accounts are given of this tranſaction: one author of great credit affirms that the bride and bridegroom remained together eight days after their marriage; another, of no leſs authority, aſſerts, on the contrary, that on the morning of the nuptials her huſband being ſent with a detachment for Riga, the marriage was never conſummated. Thus much is certain, that the dragoon was abſent when Marienburgh ſurrendered to the Ruſſians; and Catherine, who

was reſerved for a higher fortune, never ſaw him more.

General Bauer, upon the taking of Marienburgh, ſaw Catherine among the priſoners; and, being ſmitten with her youth and beauty, took her to his houſe, where ſhe ſuperintended his domeſtic affairs, and was ſuppoſed to be his miſtreſs. Soon afterwards ſhe was removed into the family of prince Menzikof, who was no leſs ſtruck with the attractions of the fair captive. With him ſhe lived until 1704; when, in the 17th year of her age, ſhe became the miſtreſs of Peter the Great, and won ſo much upon his affections, that he eſpouſed her on the 29th of May 1711. The ceremony was ſecretly performed at Jawerof in Poland, in the preſence of General Bruce; and on the 20th of February 1712, it was publicly ſolemnized with great pomp at Peterſburgh.

Catherine, by the moſt unwearied aſſiduity and unremitted attention, by the ſoftneſs and complacency of her diſpoſition, but above all by an extraordinary livelineſs and gaiety of temper, acquired a wonderful aſcendency over the mind of Peter. The latter was ſubject to occaſional horrors, which at times rendered him gloomy and ſuſpicious, and raiſed his paſſions to ſuch an height as to produce a temporary madneſs. In theſe dreadful moments Catherine was the only perſon who durſt venture to approach him; and ſuch was the kind of faſcination ſhe had acquired over his ſenſes, that her preſence had an inſtantaneous effect, and the firſt ſound of her voice compoſed his mind and calmed his agonies. From theſe circumſtances ſhe ſeemed neceſſary, not only to his comfort, but even to his very exiſtence; ſhe became his inſeparable companion on his journeys into foreign countries, and even in all his military expeditions.

The peace of Pruth, by which the Ruſſian army was reſcued from deſtruction, has been wholly attributed to Catherine, though ſhe was little more than an inſtrument in procuring the conſent of Peter. The latter, in his campaign of 1711 againſt the Turks, having imprudently led his troops into a diſadvantageous ſituation, took the deſperate reſolution of cutting his way through the Turkiſh army in the night. With this reſolution he retired to his tent in an agony of deſpair, and gave poſitive orders that no one ſhould be admitted under pain of death. In this important juncture the principal officers and the vice-chancellor Shaffirof aſſembled in the preſence of Catherine, and drew up certain preliminaries in order to obtain a truce from the grand vizir. In conſequence of this determination, plenipotentiaries were immediately diſpatched, without the knowledge of Peter, to the grand vizir, and a peace obtained upon more reaſonable conditions than could have been expected. With theſe conditions Catherine, notwithſtanding the orders iſſued by Peter, entered his tent, and prevailed upon him to ſign them. Catherine, by her conduct on this occaſion, acquired great popularity; and the emperor particularly ſpecifies her behaviour at Pruth as one of the reaſons which induced him to crown her publicly at Moſcow with his own hand. This ceremony was performed in 1724; and although deſigned by Peter only as a proof of his affection, was the principal cauſe of her ſubſequent elevation.

Her influence continued undiminiſhed until a ſhort time before the death of the emperor, when ſome circumſtances happened which occaſioned ſuch a coolneſs between them as would probably have ended in a total rupture, if his death had not fortunately intervened. The original cauſe of this miſunderſtanding aroſe from the following diſcovery of a ſecret connection between Catherine and her firſt chamberlain, whoſe name was Mons. The emperor, who was ſuſpicious of this connection, quitted Peterſburgh under pretence of removing to a villa for a few days, but privately returned to his winter palace in the capital. From thence he occaſionally ſent one of his confidental pages with a complimentary meſſage to the empreſs, as if he had been in the country, and with ſecret orders to obſerve her motions. From the page's information the emperor,

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on the third night, ſurprized Catherine in her amour in an arbour of the garden with her favourite Mons; while his ſiſter, Madame Balke, who was firſt lady of the bed-chamber to the empreſs, was, in company with another page upon the watch without the arbour.

Peter, whoſe violent temper was inflamed by this diſcovery, ſtruck Catherine with his cane, as well as the page, who endeavoured to prevent him from entering the arbour, and then retired without uttering a ſingle word either to Mons or his ſiſter. A few days after this tranſaction theſe perſons were taken into cuſtody, and Mons was carried to the winter palace, where no one had admiſſion to him but Peter, who himſelf brought him his proviſions. A report was at the ſame time circulated, that they were impriſoned for having received bribes, and making their influence over the empreſs ſubſervient to their own mercenary views. Mons being examined by Peter, in the preſence of major-general Uſchakof, and threatened with the torture, confeſſed the connexion which was laid to his charge. He was beheaded; his ſiſter received five ſtrokes of the knout, and was baniſhed into Siberia; two of her ſons, who were chamberlains, were alſo degraded, and ſent as common ſoldiers among the Ruſſian troops in Perſia. On the day ſubſequent to the execution of the ſentence, Peter conveyed Catherine in an open carriage under the gallows, to which was nailed the head of Mons. The empreſs, without changing colour at this dreadful ſight, exclaimed, "What a pity it is that that there is ſo much corruption among courtiers!"

This event happened in the latter end of the year 1724; and it was ſoon followed by Peter's death, and Catherine upon her acceſſion recalled Madame Balke; it has been ſuſpected that ſhe ſhortened the days of her huſband by poiſon. But notwithſtanding the critical ſituation for Catherine in which he died, and her ſubſequent elevation, this charge is totally deſtitute of the leaſt ſhadow of proof: for the circumſtances of Peter's diſorder were too well known, and the peculiar ſymptoms of his laſt illneſs ſufficiently account for his death, without the neceſſity of recurring to poiſon.

While Peter was yet lying in the agonies of death, ſeveral oppoſite parties were caballing on the diſpoſal of the crown. At a conſiderable meeting of many among the principal nobility, it was ſecretly determined, on the moment of his diſſolution, to arreſt Catherine, and to place Peter Alexievitch upon the throne. Baſſevitz, appriſed of this reſolution, repaired in perſon to the empreſs, although it was already night. "My grief and conſternation," replied Catherine, "render me incapable of acting myſelf: do you and prince Menzikof conſult together, and I will embrace the meaſures which you ſhall approve in my name." Baſſevitz, finding Menzikof aſleep, awakened and informed him of the preſſing danger which threatened the empreſs and her party. As no time remained for long deliberation, the prince inſtantly ſeized the treaſure, ſecured the fortreſs, gained the officers of the guards by bribes and promiſes, alſo a few of the nobility, and the principal clergy. Theſe partizans being convened in the palace, Catherine made her appearance: ſhe claimed the throne in right of her coronation at Moſcow; ſhe expoſed the ill effects of a minority; and promiſed, that, "ſo far from depriving the great-duke of the crown, ſhe would receive it only as a ſacred depoſit, to be reſtored to him when ſhe ſhould be united, in another world, to an adored huſband, whom ſhe was now upon the point of loſing."

The pathetic manner with which ſhe uttered this addreſs, and the tears which accompanied it, added to the previous diſtribution of large ſums of money and jewels, produced the deſired effect: at the cloſe of this meeting the remainder of the night was employed in making the neceſſary preparations to inſure her acceſſion in caſe of the emperor's death.

Peter at length expired in the morning of the 28th of January 1725. This event being made known, the ſenate, the generals, the principal nobility

nobility, and clergy, haſtened to the palace to proclaim the new ſovereign. The adherents of the great duke ſeemed ſecure of ſucceſs, and the friends of Catherine were avoided as perſons doomed to deſtruction. At this juncture Baſſevitz whiſpered one of the oppoſite party, "The empreſs is miſtreſs of the treaſure and the fortreſs; ſhe has gained over the guards and the ſynod, and many of the chief nobility; even here ſhe has more followers than you imagine; adviſe therefore your friends to make no oppoſition as they value their heads." This information being rapidly circulated, Baſſevitz gave the appointed ſignal, and the two regiments of guards, who had been gained by a largeſs to declare for Catherine, and had already ſurrounded the palace, beat to arms. "Who has dared (exclaimed prince Repnin, the commander in chief) to order out the troops without my knowledge?" "I, (returned general Butterlin), without pretending to diſpute your authority, in obedience to the commands of my moſt gracious miſtreſs." This ſhort reply was followed by a dead ſilence. In this moment of ſuſpence and anxiety Menzikof entered, preceding Catherine, ſupported by the Duke of Holſtein. She attempted to ſpeak, but was prevented by ſighs and tears from giving utterance to her words: at length, recovering herſelf, "I come, (ſhe ſaid), notwithſtanding the grief which now overwhelms me, to aſſure you, that, ſubmiſſive to the will of my departed huſband, whoſe memory will be ever dear to me, I am ready to devote my days to the painful occupations of government until Providence ſhall ſummon me to follow him." Then, after a ſhort pauſe, ſhe artfully added, "If the great duke will profit by my inſtructions, perhaps I ſhall have the conſolation, during my wretched widowhood, of forming for you an emperor worthy of the blood and the name of him whom you have now irretrievably loſt." "As this criſis (replied Menzikof) is a moment of ſuch importance to the good of the empire, and requires the moſt mature deliberation, your majeſty will permit us to confer, without reſtraint, that this whole affair may be tranſacted without reproach, as well in the opinion of the preſent age as in that of poſterity." "Acting as I do (anſwered Catherine), more for the public good than for my own advantage, I am not afraid to ſubmit all my concerns to the judgment of ſuch an enlightened aſſembly; you have not only my permiſſion to confer with freedom; but I lay my commands upon you all to deliberate maturely on this important ſubject, and I promiſe to adopt whatever may be the reſult of your deciſions." At the concluſion of theſe words the aſſembly retired into another apartment, and the doors were locked.

It was previouſly ſettled by Menzikof and his party that Catherine ſhould be empreſs; and the guards, who ſurrounded the palace with drums beating and colours flying, effectually vanquiſhed all oppoſition. The only circumſtance, therefore, which remained, was to give a juſt colour to her title, by perſuading the aſſembly that Peter intended to have named her his ſucceſſor. For this purpoſe Menzikof demanded of that emperor's ſecretary, whether his late maſter had left any written declaration of his intentions? The ſecretary replied, "That a little before his laſt journey to Moſcow he had deſtroyed a will; and that he had frequently expreſſed his deſign of making another, but had always been prevented by the reflection, that if he thought his people, whom he had raiſed from a ſtate of barbariſm to an high degree of power and glory, could be ungrateful, he would not expoſe his final inclinations to the inſult of a refuſal; and that if they recollected what they owed to his labours, they would regulate their conduct by his intentions, which he had diſcloſed with more ſolemnity than could be manifeſted by any writing." An altercation now began in the aſſembly; and ſome of the nobles having the courage to oppoſe the acceſſion of Catherine, Theophanes archbiſhop of Pleſcof called to their re-collection the oath which they had all taken in 1722 to acknowledge the ſucceſſor appointed by

by Peter; and added, that the ſentiments of that emperor delivered by the ſecretary were in effect an appointment of Catherine. The oppoſite party, however, denied theſe ſentiments to be ſo clear as the ſecretary choſe to inſinuate; and inſiſted, that as their late monarch had failed to nominate his heir, the election of the new ſovereign ſhould revert to the ſtate. Upon this the archbiſhop farther teſtified, that the evening before the coronation of the empreſs at Moſcow, Peter had declared, in the houſe of an Engliſh merchant, that he ſhould place the crown upon her head with no other view than to leave her miſtreſs of the empire after his deceaſe. This atteſtation being confirmed by many perſons preſent, Menzikof cried out, "What need have we of any teſtament! A refuſal to conform to the inclination of our great ſovereign, thus authenticated, would be both unjuſt and criminal. Long live the empreſs Catherine!" Theſe words being inſtantaneouſly repeated by the greateſt part of thoſe who were preſent, Menzikof ſaluting Catherine by the title of empreſs, paid his firſt obeiſance by kiſſing her hand; and his example was followed by the whole aſſembly. She next preſented herſelf at the window to the guards, and to the people, who ſhouted acclamations of "Long live Catherine!" while Menzikof ſcattered among them handfuls of money. Thus (ſays a contemporary) the empreſs was raiſed to the throne by the guards, in the ſame manner as the Roman emperors by the prætorian cohorts, without either the appointment of the people or of the legions.

The reign of Catherine may be conſidered as the reign of Menzikof, that empreſs having neither inclination or abilities to direct the helm of government; and ſhe placed the moſt implicit confidence in a man who had been the original author of her good fortune, and the ſole inſtrument of her elevation to the throne.

During her ſhort reign her life was very irregular; ſhe was extremely averſe to buſineſs; would frequently, when the weather was fine, paſs whole nights in the open air; and was particularly intemperate in the uſe of tokay-wine. Theſe irregularities joined to a cancer and a dropſy, haſtened her end; and ſhe expired on the 17th of May 1727, a little more than two years after her acceſſion to the throne, and in about the 40th year of her age.

As the deaths of ſovereigns in deſpotic countries are ſeldom imputed to natural cauſes, that of Catherine has alſo been attributed to poiſon; as if the diſorders which preyed upon her frame were not ſufficient to bring her to her grave. Some aſſert, that ſhe was poiſoned in a glaſs of ſpirituous liquor; others, by a pear given her by general Diever. Suſpicions alſo fell upon prince Menzikof, who, a ſhort time before her deceaſe, had a trifling miſunderſtanding with her, and who was accuſed of haſtening her death, that he might reign with ſtill more abſolute power during the minority of Peter II. But theſe reports deſerve not the leaſt credit, and were merely dictated by the ſpirit of party, or by popular rumour.

Catherine was in her perſon under the middle-ſize, and in her youth delicate and well-formed, but inclined to corpulency as ſhe advanced in years. She had a fair complexion, dark eyes, and light hair, which ſhe was always accuſtomed to dye with a black colour. She could neither write nor read: her daughter Elizabeth uſually ſigned her name for her, and particularly to her laſt will and teſtament; and count Oſterman generally put her ſignature to the public decrees and diſpatches. Her abilities have been greatly exaggerated by her panegyriſts. Gordon, who had frequently ſeen her, ſeems, of all writers, to have repreſented her character with the greateſt juſtneſs, when he ſays, "She was a very pretty well-looked woman, of good ſenſe, but not of that ſublimity of wit, or rather that quickneſs of imagination, which ſome people have believed. The great reaſon why the czar was ſo fond of her, was her exceeding good temper; ſhe never was ſeen peeviſh or out of humour; obliging and civil to all, and never forgetful of her former condition; withal, mighty grateful."

ful." Catherine maintained the pomp of majeſty with an air of eaſe and grandeur united; and Peter uſed frequently to expreſs his admiration at the propriety with which ſhe ſupported her high ſtation, without forgetting that ſhe was not born to that dignity.

The following anecdotes will prove that ſhe bore her elevation meekly; and, as Gordon aſſerts, was never forgetful of her former condition. When Wurmb, who had been tutor to Gluck's children at the time that Catherine was a domeſtic in that clergyman's family, preſented himſelf before her after her marriage with Peter had been publicly ſolemnized, ſhe recollected and addreſſed him with great complacency, "What, thou good man, art thou ſtill alive! I will provide for thee." And ſhe accordingly ſettled upon him a penſion. She was no leſs attentive to the family of her benefactor Gluck, who died a priſoner at Moſcow: ſhe penſioned his widow; made his ſon a page; portioned the two eldeſt daughters; and advanced the youngeſt to be one of her maids of honour. If we may believe Weber, ſhe frequently inquired after her firſt huſband; and, when ſhe lived with prince Menzikof, uſed ſecretely to ſend him ſmall ſums of money, until, in 1705, he was killed in a ſkirmiſh with the enemy.

But the moſt noble part of her character was her peculiar humanity and compaſſion for the unfortunate. Motraye has paid an handſome tribute to this excellence. "She had, in ſome ſort, the government of all his (Peter's) paſſions; and even ſaved the lives of a great many more perſons than Le Fort was able to do: ſhe inſpired him with that humanity, which, in the opinion of his ſubjects, nature ſeemed to have denied him. A word from her mouth in favour of a wretch, juſt going to be ſacrificed to his anger, would diſarm him; but if he was fully reſolved to ſatisfy that paſſion, he would give orders for the execution when ſhe was abſent, for fear ſhe ſhould plead for the victim." In a word, to uſe the expreſſion of the celebrated Munich, "*Elle etoit proprement la mediatrice entre le monarque et ſes ſujets.*"

On PERSONAL DEFORMITY.

THERE are objects, ſays an excellent writer, which have a natural aptitude to pleaſe or offend, or between which and the contemplating mind there is a neceſſary congruity or incongruity; and though the actual perception of the underſtanding, and conſequent feeling of the heart, in contemplating the actions and affections of moral agents, may exiſt in very different degrees, on account of the incidental obſtructions ariſing from bodily indiſpoſition, mental prejudices and biaſſes, and the aſſociation of ideas; yet, to every rational mind properly diſpoſed, morally good actions muſt for ever be acceptable, and can never of themſelves offend; and morally evil actions muſt for ever be diſagreeable, and can never of themſelves pleaſe. What is right in actions and characters is beautiful and amiable, and gives pleaſure; what is wrong is deformed and odious, and excites diſguſt: right and pleaſure, wrong and pain, are as diſtinct as cauſe and effect. It is no leſs abſurd to maintain, that the perception of virtue is nothing diſtinct from the reception of the pleaſure reſulting from it, than to infer, with ſome metaphyſicians, that ſolidity, extenſion, and figure, are only particular modes of ſenſation, becauſe attended, whenever they are perceived, with ſome ſenſations of ſight or touch. Thus does this author ſhew, that moral beauty and deformity are real qualities of certain actions; in which conſiſts their aptitude to pleaſe or diſguſt. With reſpect to natural beauty, he obſerves, that uniformity amidſt variety pleaſes, becauſe of the natures of variety and uniformity, which are ſuch, that, whenever united, they are adapted to pleaſe every free unbiaſſed mind that diſcerns them. He accounts for the pleaſure they afford, without referring

ferring them to an arbitrary internal ſenſe, by the following circumſtances that attend them. They are more eaſily comprehended by the mind: order and ſymmetry give things their ſtability and ſtrength, and ſubſerviency to any valuable purpoſe; regularity and order evidence art and deſign. Diſorder and confuſion, whence deformity ariſes, denote only the negation of regularity and order; or any arrangement and diſpoſition of things, which are not according to a law, rule, or plan, and prove not deſign. Theſe are not poſitively diſpleaſing; except where we previouſly expected order, or where impotence or want of ſkill appear, and the contriver has either failed of his deſign or executed it ill.

In the Fugitive Pieces is preſerved an excellent eſſay on Bodily Deformity by the late William Hay, Eſq. who was himſelf what he deſcribes, and who, while he rallies his own figure with great pleaſantry, diſcuſſes the general ſubject in a manner equally inſtructive and agreeable.

It is certain, that the human frame, being warped and diſproportioned, is leſſened in ſtrength and activity, and rendered leſs fit for its functions. Scarron had invented an engine to take off his hat; "and I wiſh (ſays our author) I could invent one to buckle my ſhoe, or to take up a thing from the ground, which I can ſcarcely do without kneeling, for I can bend my body no farther than it is bent by nature. For this reaſon, when ladies drop a fan or glove, I am not the firſt to take it up; and often reſtrain my inclination to perform thoſe little ſervices, rather than expoſe my ſpider-like ſhape. And I hope it will not be conſtrued as pride, if I do not always riſe from my ſeat when I ought: for if it is low, I find ſome trouble in it; and my center of gravity is ſo ill placed, that I am often like to fall back. Things hanging within the reach of others are out of mine; and what they can execute with eaſe I want ſtrength to perform. I am in danger of being trampled upon or ſtifled in a crowd, where my back is a convenient lodgment for the elbow of any tall perſon that is near. I can ſee nothing, and my whole employment is to guard my perſon. I have forborne to attend his majeſty in the houſe of peers ſince I was like to be ſqueezed to death there againſt the wall. I would willingly come thither when his majeſty commands, but he is too gracious to expect impoſſibilities. Beſides, when I get in, I can never have the pleaſure of ſeeing on the throne one of the beſt princes who ever ſat on it. Theſe, and many others, are the inconveniences continually attending a figure like mine. They may appear grievous to perſons not uſed to them, but they grow eaſier by habit; and, tho' they may a little diſturb, they are not ſufficient to deſtroy, the happineſs of life; of which, at an average, I have enjoyed as great a ſhare as moſt men. And perhaps one proof of it may be my writing this eſſay; not intended as a complaint againſt Providence for my lot, but as an innocent amuſement to myſelf and others."

As to what effect deformity may have on the health, it appears natural to imagine, that, as the inward parts of the body muſt in ſome meaſure comply with the outward mould, ſo, the form of the latter being irregular, the firſt cannot be ſo well placed and diſpoſed to perform their functions; and that generally deformed perſons would not be healthy or long-lived. But this is a queſtion beſt determined by facts; and in this caſe, the inſtances are too few or unobſerved to draw a general concluſion from them: and health is more than is commonly thought in a man's own power, and the reward of temperance more than the effect of conſtitution; which makes it ſtill more difficult to paſs a judgment. Æſop could not be young when he died; and might have lived longer if he had not been murdered at Delphi. The prince of Orange ſcarcely paſſed the meridian of life, and the duke of Luxemburgh died about the age of ſixty-ſeven. The lord treaſurer Burleigh lived to ſeventy-eight; but his ſon, the earl of Saliſbury, who died about fifteen years after him, could not reach near that age. It is ſaid that Mr. Pope's father was deformed, and he lived to ſeventy-five; whereas the ſon died in middle age, if he may be ſaid to die,

die, whoſe works are immortal. "My father (adds our author) was not deformed, but active, and my mother a celebrated beauty; and I, that am ſo unlike them, have lived to a greater age, and daily ſee my acquaintance of a ſtronger frame quitting the ſtage before me."

But whether deformity, abſtractedly conſidered, be really prejudicial to health, in its conſequences it appears to be moſt commonly an advantage. Deformed perſons have a leſs ſhare of ſtrength than others, and therefore ſhould naturally be more careful to preſerve it; and, as temperance is the great preſervative of health, it may incline them to be more temperate. Another great preſervative of health is moderate exerciſe, which few deformed perſons can want ſtrength to perform. As a deformed perſon is not formed for violent exerciſe, he is leſs liable to ſuch diſorders as are the natural conſequence of it. He will alſo eſcape many accidents to which men of athletic make, and who glory in their ſtrength, are always expoſing themſelves to make trial and proof of it. If he cannot carry an ox, like Milo, he will not, like Milo, be hand-cuffed in the oak by attempting to rend it. He will not be the man that ſhall ride from London to York in a day, or to Windſor in an hour, for a wager; or that ſhall be perpetually performing ſurpriſing long journeys in a ſurpriſing ſhort time, for no earthly buſineſs but the pleaſure of relating them. Conſcious of his own weakneſs, he will be cautious of running into places or occaſions of danger. Nature, too, warns deformed perſons to be careful not to offer ſuch affronts as may call them forth into the field of falſe honour, where they cannot acquit themſelves well for want of ſtrength and agility; and they are ſecurer from ſuch affronts themſelves, ſince others will conſider the little credit they will gain by compelling them to appear on that ſcene. On the whole, therefore, it may be concluded, that deformity is a protection to a man's health and perſon; which (ſtrange as it may appear) are better defended by feebleneſs than ſtrength.

The influence of bodily deformity on a man's fortune may next be conſidered. Among the lower claſs, he is cut off from many profeſſions and employments. He cannot be a ſoldier, he is under ſtandard; he cannot be a ſailor, he wants activity to climb the rigging; he cannot be a chairman or porter, he wants ſtrength to bear the burden. In higher life, he is ill qualified for a lawyer, he can ſcarcely be ſeen over the bar; for a divine, he may drop from his haſſock out of ſight in his pulpit. The improvement of his mind is his proper province, and his buſineſs only ſuch as depends on ingenuity. If he cannot be a dancing-maſter to adjuſt the heels, he may be a ſchool-maſter to inſtruct the head: he cannot be a graceful actor on the ſtage; but he may produce a good play: he would appear ill as a herald in a proceſſion; but he may paſs as a merchant on the 'change: he cannot undergo the fatigue of the campaign; but he may adviſe the operations of it: he is deſigned by nature rather to ſleep on Parnaſſus than to deſcend on the plains of Eolis: he cannot be crowned at the Olympic games; but may be the Pindar to celebrate them: he can acquire no glory by the ſword; but he may by the pen, and may grow famous by only relating thoſe exploits which are beyond his power to imitate.

Lord Bacon (that extenſive and penetrating genius, who pointed out every part of nature for examination), in his Eſſay on Deformity, ſays, "that in their ſuperiors it quencheth jealouſy towards them, as perſons that they think they may at pleaſure deſpiſe; and it layeth their competitors and emulators aſleep, as never believing they ſhould be in a poſſibility of advancement till they ſee them in poſſeſſion." But it is much to be doubted whether this is not more than counterbalanced by the contempt of the world, which it requires no mean parts to conquer; for if (as has been ſaid) a good perſon is a letter of recommendation, deformity muſt be an obſtruction in the way to favour. In this reſpect, therefore, deformed perſons ſet out in the world to a diſad-

vantage;

vantage; and they muſt firſt ſurmount the prejudices of mankind before they can be upon a par with others, and muſt obtain by a courſe of behaviour that regard which is paid to beauty at firſt ſight. When this point is once gained, the tables are turned, and then the game goes in their favour: for others, ſenſible of their injuſtice to them, no ſooner find them better than they expected, than they believe them better than they are; whereas in the beautiful perſon they ſometimes find themſelves impoſed upon, and are angry that they have worſhipped only a painted idol. For (again take lord Bacon's words) "neither is it almoſt ſeen, that very beautiful perſons are otherwiſe of great virtue: they prove accompliſhed, but not of great ſpirit; and ſtudy rather behaviour than virtue. Whereas deformed perſons, if they be of ſpirit, will free themſelves from ſcorn, which muſt be either by virtue or malice; and therefore let it not be marvelled if they ſometimes prove excellent perſons, as were Ageſilaus, Zanger the ſon of Solomon, Æſop, Gaſca preſident of Peru; and Socrates may likewiſe go amongſt them, with others." Nay, he ſays "in a great wit deformity is an advantage to riſing." And in another part of his works, "that they who by accident have ſome inevitable and indelible mark on their perſons or fortunes, as deformed people, baſtards, &c. if they want not virtue, generally prove fortunate."

Oſborn, in his Hiſtorical Memoirs of queen Elizabeth, informs us, that "ſhe choſe the goodlieſt perſons for her houſehold ſervants: but in her counſellors did not put by ſufficiency, though accompanied with a crooked perſon; as it chanced in a father and a ſon of the Cecils, both incomparable for prudence." It is well known the queen would make the father (Burleigh) ſit in her preſence; telling him that ſhe did not uſe him for his legs, but his head. But the ſon (afterwards lord treaſurer and earl of Saliſbury) was not ſo civilly treated by the populace; and is an inſtance, not only that envy purſues a great man, but that the higheſt poſt cannot redeem a deformed one from contempt: it attends him like his ſhadow, and like that too is ever reminding him of his ill figure, which is often objected for want of real crimes. For the ſame writer ſays of the ſame great man, "that the misfortunes accompanying him from his birth did not a little add to that cloud of detraction that fell upon all that he ſaid or did; a mulct in nature, like an optic ſpectacle, multiplying much in the ſight of the people the apparitions of ill." Nor was this contempt buried with him: it trampled on his aſhes, and inſulted his grave; as appears by an epitaph, which Oſborn cites, as void of wit as it is full of ſcurrility; in one line of which there is an epithet, not ſo elegant as deſcriptive of his perſon, viz. "Little boſſive Robin, that was ſo great."

Such contempt in general, joined with the ridicule of the vulgar, is another certain conſequence of bodily deformity; for men naturally deſpiſe what appears leſs beautiful or uſeful, and their pride is gratified when they ſee ſuch foils to their own perſons. It is this ſenſe of ſuperiority which is teſtified by laughter in the lower ſort; while their betters, who know how little any man whatſoever hath to boaſt of, are reſtrained by good ſenſe and good breeding from ſuch an inſult. But it is not eaſy to ſay why one ſpecies of deformity ſhould be more ridiculous than another, or why the mob ſhould be more merry with a crooked man, than with one that is deaf, lame, ſquinting, or purblind. It is a back in *alto relievo* that bears all the ridicule; though one would think a prominent belly a more reaſonable object of it, ſince the laſt is generally the effect of intemperance and of a man's own creation. Socrates was ugly, but not contemned; and Philopœmen of very mean appearance, and, though contemned on that account, not ridiculed: for Montaigne ſays, "Ill features are but a ſuperficial uglineſs, and of little certainty in the opinion of men; but a deformity of limbs is more ſubſtantial, and ſtrikes deeper in." As it is more uncommon, it is more remarkable; and that perhaps is the true reaſon

why it is more ridiculed by the vulgar.

The laſt conſideration on this ſubject relates to thoſe paſſions and affections which moſt naturally reſult from deformity. Lord Bacon obſerves, that "deformed perſons are commonly even with nature; for, as nature hath done ill by them, ſo do they by nature, being for the moſt part (as the ſcripture ſaith) *void of natural affection.*" But (ſays Mr. Hay) "I can neither find out this paſſage in ſcripture, nor the reaſon of it; nor can I give my aſſent or negative to a propoſition, till I am well acquainted with the terms of it. If by natural affection is here meant univerſal benevolence, and deformity neceſſarily implies a want of it, a deformed perſon muſt then be a complete monſter. But, however common the caſe may be, my own ſenſations inform me that it is not univerſally true. If by natural affection is meant a partial regard for individuals, I believe the remark is judicious, and founded in human nature. Deformed perſons are deſpiſed, ridiculed, and ill-treated, by others; are ſeldom favourites, and commonly moſt neglected by parents, guardians, and relations; and therefore, as they are not indebted for much fondneſs, it is no wonder if they repay but little. It is the command of ſcripture, *Not to ſet our affections on things below*; and it is the voice of reaſon, not to overvalue what we muſt ſoon part with: therefore, to be ſo fond of others as not to be able to bear their abſence, or to ſurvive them, is neither a religious nor moral duty, but a childiſh and womaniſh weakneſs; and I muſt congratulate deformed perſons, who, by example, are early taught another leſſon. And I will now lay open my own heart to the reader, that he may judge if lord Bacon's poſition is verified in me.

"I hope it proceeds not from a malignity of heart; but I never am much affected with the common accidents of life, whether they befal myſelf or others. I am little moved when I hear of death, loſs, or misfortune; I think the caſe is common.

Tritus, & e medio fortunæ ductus acervo:
JUVENAL.

And, as it is always likely to happen, I am not ſurpriſed when it does. If I ſee a perſon cry or beat his breaſt on any ſuch occaſion, I cannot bear him company; but am not a Democritus to laugh at his folly. I read of battles, and fields covered with ſlain; of cities deſtroyed by ſword, famine, peſtilence, and earthquke; I do not ſhed a tear: I ſuppoſe it is, becauſe they are the uſual ſtorms to which the human ſpecies are expoſed, proceeding from the juſt judgments of God, or the miſtaken and falſe principles of rulers. I read of perſecutions, tortures, murders, maſſacres; my compaſſion for the ſufferers is great, but my tears are ſtopped by reſentment and indignation againſt the contrivers and perpetrators of ſuch horrid actions. But there are many things that bring tears into my eyes whether I will or not; and when I reflect, I am often at a loſs in ſearching out the ſecret ſource from whence they flow. What makes me weep (for weep I do) when I read of virtue or innocence in diſtreſs; of a good man helpleſs and forſaken, unmoved by the greateſt inſults and cruelties, or courageouſly ſupporting himſelf againſt oppreſſion in the article of death? I ſuppoſe it is, to ſee vice triumphant, and virtue ſo ill rewarded, in this life. May I judge by myſelf, I ſhould imagine that few ſincere Chriſtians could read the ſufferings of their Saviour, or Engliſhmen thoſe of a Cranmer, Ridley, or Latimer, without tears; the firſt dying to eſtabliſh his religion, the laſt to reſcue it from corruption. When I read of Regulus returning to torment, and John of France to impriſonment, againſt the perſuaſion of friends, to keep faith with their enemies, I weep to think there is ſcarcely another inſtance of ſuch exalted virtue. Thoſe, who often hear me read, know that my voice changes, and my eyes are full, when I meet with a generous and heroic ſaying, action, or character, eſpecially of perſons whoſe example or command may influence mankind. I weep when I hear a Titus ſay, that he had loſt the day in

which

which he did no good; when Adrian tells his enemy, that he had eſcaped by his being emperor; or Louis XII. that he is not to revenge the affront of the duke of Orleans. Theſe are the firſt inſtances that happen to occur to me: I might recollect many, too many to inſert in this eſſay; yet all are but few, compared to inſtances of cruelty and revenge: perhaps I am concerned that they are ſo rare; perhaps too I inwardly grieve that I am not in a ſituation to do the like. I am entertained, but not moved, when I read Voltaire's Hiſtory of Charles XII. but I melt into tears on reading Hanway's character of his antagoniſt Peter the Great. The firſt is a ſtory of an enthuſiaſt; the other of a father, friend, and benefactor, of his people; whoſe character (as the author obſerves in the concluſion of it) will command the admiration of all ſucceeding generations; and I ſuppoſe I lament, that God is pleaſed to advance to royalty ſo few ſuch inſtruments of good to mankind."

Again: "I am uneaſy when I ſee a dog, a horſe, or any other animal, ill treated: for I conſider them as endued with quick ſenſe, and no contemptible ſhare of reaſon; and that God gave man dominion over them, not to play the tyrant, but to be a good prince, and promote the happineſs of his ſubjects. But I am much more uneaſy at any cruelty to my own ſpecies; and heartily wiſh Procruſtes diſciplined in his own bed, and Phalaris in his bull. A man bruiſed all over in a boxing-match, or cut to pieces in fighting for a prize, is a ſhocking ſpectacle; and I think I could with leſs horror ſee a thouſand fall in battle than human nature thus depreciated and diſgraced. Violence, when exerted in wantonneſs or paſſion, is brutality; and can be termed bravery only when it is ſanctioned by juſtice and neceſſity.

"I have been in a ſituation to ſee not a little of the pomp and vanity, as well as of the neceſſity and miſery, of mankind: but the laſt only affect me; and if, as a magiſtrate, I am ever guilty of partiality, it is in favour of the poor. When I am at church among my poor but honeſt neighbours in the country, and ſee them ſerious in performing the ceremonies preſcribed, tears ſometimes ſteal down my cheek, on reflecting, that they are doing and hearing many things they do not underſtand, while thoſe who underſtand them better neglect them: that they, who labour and live hard, are more thankful to heaven than thoſe who fare luxuriouſly on the fruits of their labour; and are keeping and repeating the fourth commandment at the very inſtant the others are breaking it.

"Theſe are ſome of the ſenſations I feel; which I have freely and fairly diſcloſed, that the reader may judge, how far I am an inſtance of a deformed perſon wanting natural affection. And I am a good ſubject of ſpeculation; becauſe all in me is nature: for, to own the truth, I have taken but little pains (though I ought to have taken a great deal) to correct my natural defects.

"Lord Bacon's next poſition is, 'That deformed perſons are extremely bold: firſt in their own defence, as being expoſed to ſcorn; but in proceſs of time by a general habit.' This, probably, is ſo among the inferior ſort, who are in the way of continual inſults: for a return of abuſe is a natural weapon of ſelf-defence, and in ſome meaſure juſtified by the law of retaliation. To upbraid a man with a perſonal defect, which he cannot help, is alſo an immoral act; and he who does it has reaſon to expect no better quarter than to hear of faults which it was in his own power not to commit. But I find this obſervation far from being verified in myſelf: an unbecoming baſhfulneſs has been the conſequence of my ill figure, and of the worſe management of me in my childhood. I am always uneaſy, when any one looks ſtedfaſtly on ſo bad a picture; and cannot look with a proper confidence in the face of another. I have ever reproached myſelf with this weakneſs, but am not able to correct it. And it may be a diſadvantage to a man in the opinion of thoſe he converſes with; for, tho' true modeſty is amiable, the falſe is liable to miſconſtruction, and, when a man is out of countenance for no reaſon,

ſon, it may be imagined that he has ſome bad reaſon for being ſo. In point of aſſurance, I am indeed a perfect riddle to myſelf; for I, who feel a reluctance in croſſing a drawing-room, or in opening my mouth in private company before perſons with whom I am not well acquainted, find little in delivering my ſentiments in public, and expoſing my diſcourſe, often as trifling as my perſon, to the ears of a thouſand. From what cauſe this proceeds, I know not: it may be partly from hopes of wiping off any ill impreſſion from my perſon by my diſcourſe, partly from a ſenſe of doing my duty, and partly from a ſecurity in public aſſemblies from any groſs perſonal reflection.

"Lord Bacon compares the caſe of deformed perſons to that of eunuchs; 'in whom kings were wont to put great truſt as good ſpies and whiſperers; for they that are envious towards all are more obnoxious and officious towards one.' But, with ſubmiſſion to ſo good a judge of human nature, I own I can diſcover no uncommon qualification in them for ſpies; and very few motives to envy peculiar to themſelves. Spies ſubmit to that baſe and ungenerous office either for the ſake of intereſt or power: if for intereſt, it is to gratify their covetouſneſs; if for power, their ambition or revenge; which paſſions are not confined to the eunuch or deformed, but indiſcriminately ſeize all claſſes of men. Envy too may prompt a man to mean actions, in order to bring down the perſon envied to his own level; but if it is on account of ſuperiority of fortune, it will operate alike on men of all ſhapes. Eunuchs have but one peculiar motive to envy: but that (as Lord Bacon expreſſes it) makes them envious towards all; becauſe it is for a pleaſure which all but themſelves may enjoy. Deformed perſons are deprived only of beauty and ſtrength, and therefore thoſe alone are to be deemed the extraordinary motives to their envy; for they can no more be beautiful or ſtrong than eunuchs be ſucceſsful lovers. As to myſelf, whatever ſparks of envy might be in my conſtitution, they are now entirely extinguiſhed; for, by frequent and ſerious reflections, I have long been convinced of the ſmall value of moſt things which men value the moſt.

"There is another paſſion to which deformed perſons ſeem to be more expoſed than to envy; which is jealouſy: for, being conſcious that they are leſs amiable than others, they may naturally ſuſpect that they are leſs beloved. I had the happineſs to ſpeak this from conjecture, and not from experience; for it was my lot, many years ago, to marry a young lady, very piouſly educated, and of a very diſtinguiſhed family, and whoſe virtues are an honour to her family and her ſex: ſo that I had never any trial of my temper, and can only gueſs at it by emotions I have felt in my younger days; when ladies have been more liberal of their ſmiles to thoſe whom I thought, in every reſpect but perſon, my inferiors."

The moſt uſeful inference from all this to a deformed perſon is, to be upon his guard againſt thoſe frailties to which he is more particularly expoſed; and to be careful, that the outward frame do not diſtort the ſoul. *Orandum eſt* (ſays Juvenal), *ut ſit mens ſana in corpore ſano*, "Let us pray for a ſound mind in a healthy body:" and every deformed perſon ſhould add this petition, *ut ſit mens recta in corpore curvo*, for "an upright mind in a crooked one." And let him frequently apply to himſelf this article of ſelf-examination, *Lenior et melior fis, accedente ſenecta?* "As age approaches, do your temper and morals improve?" It is a duty peculiarly incumbent; for if beauty adds grace to virtue itſelf, vice muſt be doubly hideous in deformity.

Ridicule and contempt are a certain conſequence of deformity; and therefore what a perſon cannot avoid he ſhould learn not to regard. He ſhould bear it like a man; forgive it as a Chriſtian; and conſider it as a philoſopher. And his triumph will be complete, if he can exceed others in pleaſantry on himſelf. Wit will give over when it ſees itſelf outdone; and ſo will malice when it finds it has no effect: and, if a man's behaviour afford no cauſe of contempt, it will fall

fall upon thoſe who condemn him without cauſe.

Inſtead of repining, therefore, a deformed perſon ought to be thankful to Providence for giving him ſuch a guard to his virtue and repoſe. Thouſands are daily ruined by a handſome perſon; for beauty is a flower that every one wants to gather in its bloom, and ſpares no pains or ſtratagem to reach it. All the poetical ſtories concerning it have their moral. A Helen occaſions war and confuſion; the Hyacinths and Ganymedes are ſeized on for catamites; the Endymions and Adoniſes for gallants; Narciſſus can admire nobody but himſelf, and grows old before he is cured of that paſſion. Who is a ſtranger to the ſtory of Lucretia killing himſelf for her violated chaſtity? or of Virginia killed by her father to preſerve it? In thoſe circumſtances, ſays Juvenal, ſhe might wiſh to change perſons with Rutila, the only lady we know among the ancients celebrated for a hump-back. The handſomeſt men are choſen for eunuchs and gallants; and, when they are caught in exerciſing the laſt function, both Horace and Juvenal inform you of the penalties and indignities they undergo. Silius was converted, by the inſatiable Meſſalina, into a huſband; and Sporus, by the monſter Nero, into a wife. The laſt-mentioned poet ſhews that praying for beauty is praying for a curſe; and Perſius refuſes to join in ſuch a prayer; and has not the deformed perſon to thank his ſtars, which have placed him more out of danger than even virtue could? for that could not guard a Joſeph, an Hippolytus, a Bellerophon, and others, againſt the revenge of ſlighted love.

Another great advantage of deformity is, that it tends to the improvement of the mind. A man that cannot ſhine in his perſon will have recourſe to his underſtanding; and attempt to adorn that part of him which alone is capable of ornament. When his ambition prompts him to begin, with Cowley, to aſk himſelf this queſtion,

What ſhall I do to be for ever known,
And make the age to come my own?

on looking about him, he will find many avenues to the temple of fame barred againſt him; but ſome are ſtill open through that of virtue; and thoſe, if he has a right ambition, he will moſt probably attempt to paſs. The more a man is inactive in his perſon, the more his mind will be at work; and the time which others ſpend in action he will paſs in ſtudy and contemplation: by theſe he may acquire wiſdom; and by wiſdom, fame. The name of Socrates is as much founded as thoſe of Alexander and Cæſar; and is recorded in much fairer characters. He gained renown by wiſdom and goodneſs; they by tyranny and oppreſſion: he by inſtructing, they by deſtroying, mankind: and happy it is, that their evil deeds were confined to their lives; while he continues to inſtruct us to this day. A deformed perſon will naturally conſider where his ſtrength and his foible lie: and, as he is well acquainted with the laſt, he will eaſily find out the firſt; and muſt know, that (if it is any where) it is not, like Samſon's, in the hair, but muſt be in the lining, of the head. He will ſay to himſelf, "I am weak in perſon: unable to ſerve my country in the field, I can acquire no military glory; but I may, like Socrates, acquire reputation by wiſdom and probity; let me therefore be wiſe and honeſt. My figure is very bad; and I ſhould appear but ill as an orator either in the pulpit or at the bar: let me therefore paſs my time in my ſtudy, either in reading what may improve myſelf, or in writing what may entertain or inſtruct others. I have not the ſtrength of Hercules, nor can I rid the world of ſo many monſters; but perhaps I may get rid of ſome that infeſt myſelf. If I cannot draw out Cacus from his den, I may pluck the villain from my own breaſt. I cannot cleanſe the ſtable of Augeas: but I may cleanſe my own heart from filth and impurity: I may demoliſh the hydra of vices with me; and ſhould be careful too, that, while I lop off one, I do not ſuffer more to grow up in its ſtead. Let me be ſerviceable in any way that I can: and, if I am ſo, it may, in ſome meaſure,

be

be owing to my deformity; which at leaſt ſhould be a reſtraint on my conduct, leſt my conduct make me more deformed."

Few perſons have a houſe entirely to their mind, or the apartments in it diſpoſed as they could wiſh. And there is no deformed perſon who does not wiſh that his ſoul had a better habitation; which is ſometimes not lodged according to its quality. Lord Clarendon ſays of Sir Charles Cavendiſh (brother to the marquis of Newcaſtle), that he was a man of the nobleſt and largeſt mind, though of the leaſt and moſt inconvenient body, that lived. And every body knows, that the late prince of Orange had many amiable qualities. Therefore, in juſtice to ſuch perſons, we muſt ſuppoſe that they did not repine that their tenements were not in a more regular ſtyle of architecture. And let every deformed perſon comfort himſelf with reflecting, that, though his ſoul hath not the moſt convenient and beautiful apartment, yet that it is habitable; that the accommodation will ſerve as an inn upon the road; that he is but tenant for life, or (more properly) at will; and that, while he remains in it, he is in a ſtate to be envied by the deaf, the dumb, the lame, and the blind.

CHARACTER of TIPPOO SAIB, embelliſhed with an elegant PORTRAIT.

TIPPOO SAIB ſucceeded his father, Hyder Ally, in the year 1782, the beginning of the year 1107 of the Hegeira. He then aſſumed the title of ſultan, or king, which had not been taken by either his father or grandfather.

Tippoo is the firſt Mahommedan prince who, ſince the eſtabliſhment of the Mogul empire, has openly diſclaimed the authority of the king of Delhi, or Great Mogul; and who has preſumed to impreſs coin with only his own titles. Even the government of Bengal ſtill preſerve that external mark of reſpect to the fallen repreſentative of the houſe of Timur.

The dominions of Tippoo Sultan, previous to the war, rendered his power formidable, not only from their extent and value, but alſo from their advantageous poſition; which, ſtrengthened by numerous fortreſſes, commanded the frontiers of the adjoining countries; and the reſtleſs enterprizing ſpirit of the ſovereign obliged all around him to be in a ſtate of conſtant preparation for their defence.

The ſultan's revenues, it appears, amounted annually to about two and a half millions ſterling. He was, beſides, poſſeſſed of very great treaſures, and had an army conſiſting of eighteen thouſand cavalry, fifty thouſand regular infantry, formed in brigades, completely appointed with field artillery; and twice that number of irregular infantry, employed to garriſon his forts, and for the collection of his revenues.

Whether from the operation of the ſyſtem eſtabliſhed by Hyder; from the principles which Tippoo had adopted for his own conduct; or from his dominions having ſuffered little by invaſion for many years; or from the effect of theſe ſeveral cauſes united; his country was found every where full of inhabitants, and apparently cultivated to the utmoſt extent of which the ſoil was capable; while the diſcipline and fidelity of his troops in the field, until their laſt overthrow, were teſtimonies equally ſtrong of the excellent regulations which exiſted in his army. His goverment, though ſtrict and arbitrary, was the deſpotiſm of a politic and able ſovereign, who nouriſhes, not oppreſſes, the ſubjects who are to be the means of his future aggrandizement: and his cruelties were, in general, inflicted only on thoſe whom he conſidered as his enemies. He had been diligently employed, ever ſince the former war, in improving his army, and in ſtrengthening his principal forts; and had laid in ſuch ample ſupplies of military ſtores in his frontier poſts to the north, as ſhewed that he meditated extenſive conqueſts.

[The annexed repreſentation of the BATTLE of HASTINGS, ſhewing the defeat and death of HAROLD, by WILLIAM the CONQUEROR, is to be placed oppoſite p. 135 of the WARS of ENGLAND, where that memorable battle is particularly deſcribed.]

POETRY.

POETRY.

JACK's FIDELITY.

FROM DIBDIN'S CASTLES IN THE AIR.

IFever a ſailor was fond of good ſport
'Mongſt the girls, why that ſailor was I;
Of all ſizes and ſorts I'd a wife at each port;
But, when that I ſaw Polly Ply,
I hail'd her my lovely, and gov'd her a kiſs,
And ſwore to bring up once for all;
And from that time black Barnaby ſplic'd us till this,
I've been conſtant and true to my Poll.

And yet now all ſorts of temptations I've ſtood;
For I afterwards ſail'd round the world,
And a queer ſet we ſaw, of the devil's own brood,
Wherever our ſails were unfurl'd:
Some with faces like charcoal, and others like chalk,
All ready one's heart to o'erhaul:
"Don't ye go love me, my good girls, ſaid I—walk—
I've ſworn to be conſtant to Poll."

I met with a ſquaw, out at India beyond,
All in glaſs and tobacco-pipes dreſs'd:
What a dear pretty monſter! ſo kind and ſo fond,
That I ne'er was a moment at reſt.
With her bobs at her noſe, and her quaw quaw quaw,
All the world like a bartlemy doll:
Says I—"You Miſs Copperſkin, juſt hold your jaw,
For I ſhall be conſtant to Poll."

Then one near Sumatra, juſt under the line,
As fond as a witch in a play:
"I loves you;" ſays ſhe, "and juſt only be mine,
Or by poiſon I'll take you away."
"Curſe your kindneſs," ſays I—"but you can't frighten me;
You don't catch a gudgeon this haul;
If I do take your rats-bane, why then, do you ſee,
I ſhall die true and conſtant to Poll."

But I ſcap'd from 'em all, tawney, lily, and black,
And merrily weather'd each ſtorm,
And, my neighbours to pleaſe, full of wonders came back,
But, what's better, I'm grown pretty warm.
And ſo now to ſea I ſhall venture no more,
For you know, being rich, I've no call;
So I'll bring up young tars, do my duty aſhore,
And live and die conſtant to Poll.

The JOLLY RINGERS.

FROM THE SAME.

OFT has the world been well defin'd
By ſayers and by ſingers.
I call't a belfry, and mankind
I call the jolly ringers.
Through major bobs, and triple bobs,
Each emulouſly ranges;
And, while each anxious boſom throbs,
All try to ring the changes.

Theſe college-youths are ſent to ſchool,
And afterwards to college—
And thence return by ſquare and rule
Well vers'd in worldly knowledge;
As genius leads, to cram his maw,
Each art's cloſe lab'rynth ranges—
And on religion, phyſic, law,
Completely rings the changes.

The fortune-hunter ſwears and lies
And courts the widow's jointe
Then with a richer heireſs flies,
Nor minds to diſappoint her.
The widow too has her arch whim
Nor thinks his conduct ſtrange
A titled heir ſucceeds to him,
And thus ſhe rings the changes.

The waiter pillages the greek;
The greek the ſpendthrift fleeces;
The ſpendthrift makes dad's fortun ſqueak;
Dad rack-rents and grants leaſes:
The tenants break, Gazette reports
Each difference arranges,
Till, pro and con, through all the courts
The lawyers ring the changes.

Thus, like the bells, each fear and hope
Hangs wav'ring and ſuſpended:
All tug away, while ſome a rope
Get more than they intended.
In merry cadence as they roll
We'll rove where reaſon ranges,
Nor ſhall the bell of ſadneſs toll
Till death ſhall ring the changes.

ODE TO LOVE.

TRANSLATED FROM THE PERSIAN.

By Sir WILLIAM JONES.

HEAR how yon reed, in ſadly-pleaſing tales,
Departed bliſs and preſent woe bewails—
"With me from native banks untimely torn,
Love-warbling youths and ſoft-ey'd virgins mourn!
Oh! let the heart by fatal abſence rent,
Feel what I ſing, and bleed when I lament,

Who roams in exile from his parent bow'r,
Pants to return, and chides each ling'ring hour;
My notes in circles of the grave and gay
Have hail'd the riſing, cheer'd the cloſing, day:
Each in my fond affections claim'd a part,
But none diſcern'd the ſecret of my heart—
What though my ſtrains and ſorrows flow combin'd,
Yet ears are ſlow, and carnal eyes are blind,
Free through each mortal form the ſpirits roll,
But ſight avails not—can we ſee the ſoul?"
Such notes breath'd gn tly from yon vocal frame,
Breath'd, ſaid I?—No, 'twas all-enliv'ning flame.
'Tis Love that fills the reed with warmth divine,
'Tis Love that ſparkles in the racy wine.
Me, plaintive wand'rer from my peerleſs maid,
The reed has fir'd, and all my ſoul betray'd.
He gives the bane, and he with balſam cures,
Afflicts, yet ſoothes; impaſſions, yet allures.
Delightful pangs his am'rous tales prolong,
And Laih's frantic lover lives in ſong.
Not he who reaſons beſt this wiſdom knows;
Ears only drink what rapt'rous tongues diſcloſe;
Nor fruitleſs deem the reed's heart-piercing pain;
See ſweetneſs dropping from the parted cane.
Alternate hope and fear my days divide,
I courted grief, and anguiſh was my bride.
Flow on, ſad ſtream of life, I ſmile ſecure;
Thou liveſt—thou, the pureſt of the pure.
Riſe vig'rous youth, be free, be nobly bold;
Shall chains confine you, tho' they blaze with gold?
Go, to your vaſe the gather'd main convey,
What were your ſtores, the pittance of a day;
New plans for wealth your fancies would invent,
Yet ſhells, to nouriſh pearls, muſt be content.
The man, whoſe robe Love's purple arrows rend,
Bids av'rice reſt, and toils tumultuous end.
Hail, heav'nly Love, true ſource of endleſs gains,
Thy balm reſtores me, and thy ſkill ſuſtains.
Oh, more than Galen learn'd, than Plato wiſe,
My guide, my law, my joy ſupreme, ariſe;
Love warms this frigid clay with myſtic fire,
And dancing mountains leap with young deſire.
Bleſt is the ſoul that ſwims in ſeas of love,
And long the life ſuſtain'd by food above.
With forms imperfect can perfection dwell?
Here pauſe, my ſong; and thou, vain world, farewell!

APOLOGY FOR VAGRANTS.

FOR him who, loſt to ev'ry hope of life,
Has long with fortune held unequal ſtrife,
Known to no human love, no human care,
The friendleſs, homeleſs, object of deſpair;
For the poor vagrant, feel, while he complains,
Nor from ſad freedom ſend to ſadder chains.
Alike, if folly or misfortune brought
Thoſe laſt of woes his evil days have wrought;
Believe with ſocial mercy, and with me,
Folly's misfortune in the firſt degree.
Perhaps on ſome inhoſpitable ſhore
The houſeleſs wretch a widow'd parent bore;
Who then, no more by golden proſpects led,
Of the poor Indian begg'd a leafy bed.
Cold on Canadian hills, or Minden's plain,
Perhaps that parent mourn'd her ſoldier ſlain;
Bent o'er her babe, her eye diſſolv'd in dew,
The big drops mingling with the milk he drew,
Gave the ſad preſage of his future years,
The child of miſery, baptiz'd in tears!

THE PUGILISTS.

SO when a barber and a collier fight,
The barber beats and luckleſs collier white;
In comes the dyer, of cerulean hue,
And beats the barber and the collier blue;
Next come the brick duſt-man, with rouge beſpread,
And beats the barber, collier, dyer—red;
The rallying collier whirls his empty ſack,
Knocks down the brick duſt-man, and beats him black:
White, blue, red, black, in motley clouds are toſt,
While in the duſt they raiſe the combatants are loſt.

CHARADE.

MY *firſt* is known in public and in ſtate;
Which to my *ſecond* join'd affords much mirth:
My *whole* gives riſe to cenſure and debate,
And throws diſorder over all the earth.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

From the LONDON GAZETTE.

Extract of a Letter from the Governor and Council at Bengal, in their political Department, to the Court of Directors, dated Bengal, Aug. 1, 1793.

ON the 11th of June we received from the governor in council at Fort St. George, by the Drake cruizer, which had arrived there from Suez on the 1ſt, copies of diſpatches, dated the 10th of April, from Mr. Baldwin, his majeſty's conſul at Alexandria, with a detail of intelligence from Europe, notifying, in poſitive terms, that the French had declared war againſt England and Holland on the 1ſt of February, 1793. We therefore iſſued orders, which were effected without reſiſtance, for the taking poſſeſſion of Chandernagore, and the ſeveral French factories in this country, and ſeizing the veſſels here that carried the French flag.

The government of Madras immediately commenced the neceſſary preparations for the ſiege of Pondicherry, where Col. Floyd, with a detachment, arrived on the 11th of July, to blockade it on the land ſide, while the Commodore, with his majeſty's frigate the Minerva, and three of our China ſhips, the Triton, Warley, and Royal Charlotte, were employed to prevent ſupplies from being imported by ſea; and the French factories of Karical and Yanam have been taken poſſeſſion of by the officers of the Madras government.

Extract of a Letter from the Governor and Council at Bombay, in their political Department, to the Court of Directors, dated Bombay, Sept. 3.

Having authentic intelligence, by the Drake cruizer from Suez, that hoſtilities had actually commenced between Great Britain and France, we iſſued the neceſſary orders for reducing the fort of Mahé, and taking poſſeſſion of their factory at Surat, which we have the pleaſure to acquaint you have been effected without reſiſtance.

WHITEHALL, *Jan.* 24, 1794.

The diſpatches, of which the following are copies, were this morning received over-land from India, by the Court of Directors for affairs of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the Eaſt-Indies.

Copy of a Letter from the Governor and Council of Madras, to the Court of Directors, dated Fort St. George, Auguſt 24, 1793.

HONOURABLE SIRS,

We have great ſatisfaction in reporting to your honourable court, that Pondicherry was ſurrendered to the army under Col. Brathwaite on the morning of the 23d inſt.

As we forward this addreſs via Bombay, we ſhall embrace another opportunity of giving you a detailed account of the operations of the army. It will be ſufficient to mention here, that not a moment was loſt after our receipt of the intelligence of the war, which reached us on the 1ſt of June, (in a letter from the Britiſh conſul at Alexandria,) in making preparations for the ſiege. An enfilading battery was opened againſt the fort on the 20th inſtant; and on the 22d a battery was opened on the face to be attacked, and in a ſhort time completely ſilenced the enemy's guns. That ſame evening the governor ſent out a deputation, with propoſals to ſurrender; and early the next morning our troops took poſſeſſion of the place.

We have the honour to tranſmit a copy of Colonel Brathwaite's laſt diſpatch, with a copy of the articles of capitulation, and to offer our warmeſt congratulations to you on an event ſo honourable and important to your intereſts in this country.

All the French ſettlements in Bengal, as well as thoſe on the two coaſts, have been ſurrendered to the Britiſh arms.

CHARLES OAKELEY.
E. W. FALLOWFIELD.

To the Hon. Sir Charles Oakeley, Bart. Governor in Council.

HONOURABLE SIR,

Captain Brathwaite, my aid-de-camp, will have the honour to deliver this to you; it incloſes a copy of the terms which humanity alone induced me to grant to the French garriſon, who, in many inſtances, behaved very ill; but it ſeems they were under little or no controul of their officers, who were hourly in apprehenſion for their own lives; and this day I was greatly alarmed by repeated information that ſome of them had ſurrounded the governor's houſe and menaced his life, and preſſing me to puſh forward the troops, which was accordingly done; and I had the pleaſure to learn that, though matters had for ſome time worn a diſagreeable appearance, they had not had recourſe to their arms, or any act of violence; they were moſtly drunk, and ſtraggling about in various directions, but without arms; however, they have been moſtly collected, and will, before night, be perfectly ſecured in the church at Ariancopang.

JOHN BRATHWAITE.

CAMP on the Red-hills, *Aug.* 23.

TERMS OF CAPITULATION.

I. I promiſe, that if the place, with all public property, ſtores, ammunition, arms, ordnance

ordnance, treaſure, and proviſions, is faithfully delivered up, all private property belonging to individuals ſhall be ſacred and inviolable: it being underſtood that arms, warlike or naval ſtores, though in the hands of private merchants, muſt be conſidered as public property, and faithfully delivered up as ſuch.

II. The place muſt be ſurrendered to the troops that I ſhall ſend to take poſſeſſion, as ſoon as they appear at the Madras and Vallenour gates. The Engliſh troops, and the native troops in the Britiſh ſervice, ſhall behave with good order and diſcipline. The French muſt do the ſame.

III. The garriſon muſt lodge their arms in the arſenal, and march out without arms or colours. They will be conſidered as priſoners of war, and treated humanely as ſuch. They ſhall be marched to Ariancopang, (the native-troops excepted, who ſhall have liberty to go where they pleaſe,) and lodged and fed there, till tents, &c. can be prepared to ſend them to Madras; and I pledge myſelf they ſhall be ſent to Europe by the firſt opportunity.

IV. With regard to the officers, they ſhall wear their ſwords, and be priſoners on their paroles of honour, reſerving their private properties.

V. Hoſtages, two officers of rank, muſt be ſent to me before nine o'clock to-morrow morning, for the faithful acquieſcence to theſe terms; and on the arrival of thoſe hoſtages I will ſend troops to take poſſeſſion of the place, and to eſcort the French ſoldiers to Ariancopang.

VI. Rigour would juſtify me, under preſent circumſtances, in inſiſting upon harſher terms; but humanity induces me to ſpare perſons and private property; and the inhabitants remaining in Pondicherry, provided they demean themſelves with due obedience to our government and laws, ſhall be treated and conſidered as inhabitants under the protection of the Britiſh goverment.

VII. This is final. If not acceded to by the arrival of the hoſtages, I ſhall recommence hoſtilities at nine o'clock preciſely.

Given under my hand, ſolely for the preſent, in the abſence of Admiral Cornwallis. Camp before Pondicherry, Auguſt 23, three A. M. J. BRATHWAITE.

MADRID, *Jan* 1.

Intelligence has been received from Barcelona, that on the 20th ult. the Spaniſh troops, which were at Banuls de Mar, attacked the town of Port Vendre, and the entrenchments on the heights behind the place, and carried them, after an obſtinate and bloody action, taking ſix pieces of cannon:—That Gen. Cueſta afterwards directed a ſudden attack upon Fort St. Elmo, where the French had retired from Port Vendre, and, notwithſtanding the inceſſant fire kept up by the garriſon, two battalions of Walloons and ſome other corps gained the almoſt inacceſſible heights by which the place is commanded, and obliged the garriſon to ſurrender priſoners of war:—That the guns of the Fort of St. Elmo were immediately turned upon the town of Collieure, which was given up at diſcretion the next morning:—That, on the 21ſt, the Marquis de l'Amarillas, at the head of three columns, attacked the flank of the batteries and entrenchments in the front of the Spaniſh vanguard at Bolb, carried three batteries, and obliged the French to retreat to Banuls de Aſpres:—That a falſe attack was, at the ſame time, made on the right of the enemy's camp by a column from Ceret, commanded by the Portugueſe General Forbes, and another on the left by General Hurrigaray, who fell in with a column of two thouſand men, on their march from Perpignan to the camp at Banul de Aſpres, which they charged, killed five hundred men on the ſpot and in the purſuit, took two hundred priſoners, and two baggage waggons, with very inconſiderable loſs. It is computed that, in theſe ſeveral actions, the Spaniards have taken ſeventy pieces of artillery, a great quantity of clothing and ammunition, and ſix months proviſions for ten thouſand men.

LISBON, *Jan.* 11.

Accounts have been received here from the head quarters at Bollou, dated December 23, that at day-break on the 21ſt the allies attacked and carried all the enemy's advanced lines and batteries; which ſucceſs, together with the capture of Port Vendre, Fort St. Elmo, and Collieure, determined the enemy, whoſe left and rear flanks were laid open, to quit, in the courſe of that night, all their camps and poſts in front of the allies, and retire into Perpignan, leaving the Spaniards maſters of the country to the very gates of the town.

WHITEHALL, *Feb* 11.

On Sunday the 9th inſtant, the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's paincipal ſecretaries of ſtate, received diſpatches from the lieutenant-governor of Jamaica, dated the 15th of December, 1793, containing intelligence, that Major Grant, commandant at Cape Nichola Mole, had accepted the ſurrender of the pariſhes of St. Marc and Genaives, in St. Domingo, to his majeſty, upon the ſame terms and conditions which have been granted to Cape Nichola Mole and the quarter of Jeremie; and that the Britiſh flag was, in conſequence, flying on all the forts and batteries in thoſe pariſhes.

THE

THE BUDGET.

HOUSE of COMMONS,

WEDNESDAY, *Feb.* 5.

THE Chancellor of the Exchequr ſtated, that the particulars and total of the ſupply amounted to the ſum of 19,940,000l. the total of the navy to 5,525,000l. the whole amount of the army, including the foreign troops, to 6,340,000l.

As to the vote of credit, it was employed in the purchaſe of corn, and he ſhould not dwell any more on that ſubject at this time; the amount of the ordnance was 1,345,000l. the total charge of the army navy, and ordnance, was 13,210,000l.

The next ſubject was the deficiencies of grants, which were larger this year than the preceding one, which deficiency is 474,000l. The land and malt had been eſtimated at 350,000l. and 200,000l. for the reduction of the national debt.

On the ſubject of exchequer-bills, he obſerved, that the ſum which had been voted for that purpoſe was 5,500,000l. he was averſe from the preſent mode of paying the immoderate diſcount, and gave it as his opinion, as the worſt mode of levying money.—The ſum propoſed to be levied laſt yearwas 1,500,000l.—206,000l. for miſcellaneous accounts made up the total of ways and means 19,947,000l.

The growing produce of the conſolidated fund had been deducted from the permanent charges, 2,697,000l. for the year 1793; the permanent taxes amounted, in compariſon to the produce of the taxes of 1792, to a larger ſum; and the produce of 1792 to thoſe of 1791.

The average increaſe of the revenue for the four years he had ſtated amounted to 100,000l. per ann. in 1793 it amounted to 400,000l. one half of which had been applied to the reduction of the national debt; and the taxes, to the amount of the remaining 200,000l. had been repealed; he therefore ſhould think himſelf perfectly at liberty to include that ſurplus in the ſupply of the preſent year. The permanent taxes, which amount to 13,940,000l. when decreaſed by the deduction of the charges upon the conſolidated fund, as in laſt year, viz. 11,391,000l. the intereſt and charge of the loan 25,000l. charged on the conſolidated fund, was an object which he wiſhed to impreſs upon the houſe. He ſhould wiſh to continue the remainder of thoſe taxes to the end of the preſent year, of which the amount was 400,000l. together with 143,000l. for foreign ſpirits. To theſe circumſtances muſt be added the ſum of 500,000l. from the Eaſt-India company, whoſe reſources were of that nature to afford that ſum, though their ſituation was at preſent particularly circumſtanced. He then mentioned the ſum which he wiſhed to borrow to be eleven millions; he had already ſtated the amount of the ways and means to be 19,947,000l. The charge of the ſurplus of the navy expences amounts to 3,750,000l. thoſe of the army to 4,592,000l. 800,000l. in time of war, the increaſe is then 11,800,000l. of which eleven millions are to be the balance, in addition to the current year. The large increaſe of the navy-debt, which amounts to the ſum of 3,200,000l. he ſhould not ſuffer to be a burden at the end of the war, which had been frequently the practice of former adminiſtrations, and the conſideration of that ſubject had been merely a queſtion of convenience. He then took a view of the manner in which he had propoſed the loan, leaving it as a matter of competition for monied men, that the public might have the beſt bargain.—The intereſt of eleven millions borrowed, and a proportionable increaſe to the ſinking fund, was 650,000l.—Next the intereſt to be provided, and the ſame proportional increaſe to the ſinking fund for 4,200,000l. for navy-debt, and future navy-payments to keep down the navy-debt, for the purpoſe of avoiding diſcount on navy-bills, was 248,181l. He then thought it proper to advert to other taxes, the produce of which was ſo ſmall, that, though theſe times were peculiarly critical, yet he ſhould wiſh to repeal, viz. the glove-duty, and that upon births and burials; the total amount of both which was 10,600.

The ſum which he then had to provide was 908,181l. He ſaid there was 400,000l. to diſpoſe of, and the average of the two laſt years was in the ſurplus to the amount of 385,000l. The taxes, which, with the concurrence of the committee, he ſhould have to propoſe, were,—One penny on every gallon of home-made ſpirits, 10d. on brandy, and 8d. on rum. The aggregate of theſe, according to the beſt calculations he could make, was on the home ſpirits 107,000l. and on the foreign 136,000l.—Two ſhillings and ſix-pence per thouſand on bricks, and 1s. 6d. per thouſand on tiles, which make 70,000l.—Ten ſhillings per ton on ſlates, and 2s. 6d. per ton on ſtone, which will amount to 30,000l.—

30,000l.---Sixteen ſhillings and one penny per cwt. on crown-glaſs, and 1l 16s. per cwt. on plate-glaſs, which would amount to 52,000l.---A duty on paper, which he meant to claſs into three different kinds, to produce 63,000l.---Laſtly, an additional tax upon attorneys. It was intended to impoſe on every indented clerk to this profeſſion 100l. and for each perſon ſworn an attorney a further ſum of 100l. This tax, he ſtated, was eſtimated to produce no more than 25,000l. The whole of which, added to the diſpoſeable ſurplus above-mentioned, would be found to produce an annual ſum, rather more than the intereſt required for the purpoſe before ſtated.

In drawing towards a concluſion, he recapitulated his entire ſtatement, and pointed out the ſlight burthens impoſed on the public in conſequence of the neceſſary exertions made to oppoſe an enemy, in a conteſt, in which not only the independence and exiſtence of the nation, but every thing dear to man in civilized ſociety, was involved.

Mr. Fox ſaid, that laſt year he had diſapproved of the terms on which the loan had been completed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and he divided the houſe upon the ſubject: but as he was impelled, by a ſenſe of duty on the one hand, to declare his diſapprobation when cenſure was incurred, ſo, on the other, he was equally diſpoſed to beſtow his tribute of applauſe when praiſe was deſerved. The terms on which the preſent loan were made were as advantageous to the community, and as fair and equal to the individuals, as any which could have been tranſacted; and he moſt perfectly concurred with the right hon. gentleman with reſpect to the manner in which he had conducted it. He was alſo glad to find that the right hon. gentleman had at length ſeen the propriety of funding the navy-debt. The enormous diſcount which the public was forced to pay for the navy-bills ſhewed the perfect propriety as well as neceſſity of that meaſure, and, as ſuch, he was moſt willingly diſpoſed to acquieſce in it. —But there was one part of the right hon. gentleman's ſpeech which he could not help condemning, when he had aſſerted that the burthens to be laid on our conſtituents, in conſequence of the war, were comparatively light and trifling; which aſſertion was moſt improperly, if not indecently, ſuggeſted by the ſpeech from the throne, on the opening of the preſent ſeſſion of parliament. Surely this houſe was as competent to decide on the the degree of preſſure with which public burthens would bear on their conſtituents as either the crown or its miniſters could be; and it was incompetent to the latter to decide upon the ſubject, more particularly when, ſubſequent to ſuch declaration, an additional weight of near a million of taxes was to be impoſed upon the country. He contended, that the taxes which were intended to be continued or increaſed were, in ſome degree, burthenſome to the nation. There was, in his opinion, no falſer mode of conſidering the propriety or impropriety of taxes, than regarding them as falling upon articles of luxury or neceſſity, without conſidering the ſtate of ſociety, or the manners of the people upon whom they were to be impoſed.

RECAPITULATION.

SUPPLY.	£
Navy - -	5,525,000
Army, including foreign troops	6,340,000
Ordnance - -	1,345,000
Miſcellaneous Services -	206,000
Addition to the Sinking Fund -	200,000
Deficiency of Grants -	474,000
Ditto Land and Malt -	350,000
Exchequer-bills -	5,500,000
	19,940,000

WAYS AND MEANS.	
Land and Malt - -	2,750,000
Growing Produce - -	2,697,000
Loan - - -	11,000,000
Exchequer-bills - -	3,500,000
	19,947,000

Proviſion for the Additional Charge to be incurred on the

CONSOLIDATED FUND.

Intereſt on 11,000,000l. borrowed, and a proportional increaſe to the ſinking fund,	650,000
Ditto to be provided, and a proportional increaſe to the ſinking fund for 4,200,000l. for navy debt, and future navy payment to keep down the navy debt, for the purpoſe of avoiding diſcount on navy bills, - -	248,181
Tax on burials and glove-tax to be repealed - -	10,600
	908,181

TAXES.

Surplus taxes 1791 unappropriated, and of Scotch ſpirits 1793, - -	428,000
Bricks and tiles, - -	70,000
Britiſh ſpirits, - -	107,000
Foreign ditto, - -	136,000
Slate and ſtone, - -	30,000
Glaſs, - -	52,000
Paper, - -	63,000
Attorneys Indentures, -	25,000
	911,000

LIST of PRIZES, continued from Page 288.

From the LONDON GAZETTE.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *Jan.* 28.

Extract of a Letter from Captain Lucas, of his Majeſty's ſhip Sphynx, to Mr. Stephens, dated Plymouth, the 21ſt inſtant.

I HAVE the honour to acquaint you, for the information of my lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that, being on a cruize off Cape Clear, on Sunday the 12th inſtant, we ſaw a ſail to the weſtward, ſtanding before the wind: we tacked and ſtood after her. At noon ſhe bore up to croſs us, which was prevented. At two P. M. ſhe began an unſucceſsful fire, and hoiſted the national flag, and in about ten or twelve minutes ſtruck to his majeſty's colours.

She proves to be La Trompeuſe, a national brig, mounting 18 ſix-pounders, commanded by Monſ. Biller, a ſecond captain, three lieutenants and one hundred and five men, quite a new veſſel, cutter-built, and ſtores complete for three months.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *Feb.* 10.

Sir John Borlaſe Warren, captain of his majeſty's ſhip Flora, being on a cruize on the coaſt of France, has captured, and ſent to Portſmouth, a French republican brig named La Vipere, of 16 ſix-pounder guns and one hundred and five men, quite new, coppered, and only four days from Havre.

Feb. 11.

Sunday a letter was received from Commodore Ford, commander in chief at Jamaica, incloſing an account from Capt. Rowley, of the Penelope frigate, of the capture of the Inconſtant French frigate by the Penelope and Iphigenia, after the exchange of a few broadſides, in which the Penelope had one man killed and ſeven wounded, (among the latter is Mr. John Allen, midſhipman;) and the Inconſtant had ſix killed, (amongſt whom was the firſt lieutenant,) and the captain and twenty-three wounded; three of whom are ſince dead.

From the gallant behaviour of Lieut. Malcolm, the officers, and ſhip's company, Capt. Rowley ſays, he has every reaſon to flatter himſelf, that, had either of his majeſty's frigates been ſingle, they would have been equally fortunate in capturing her.

The Antelope ſailed from Port Royal, Jamaica, Nov. 27.—On the firſt of December, on the coaſt of Cuba, not far from Cumberland harbour, ſhe fell in with two ſchooners, apparently of ſome force; the maſter bore up for Jamaica; the Atalanta, one of the privateers, outſailed her conſort, left her, and continued the chace all day, and till about four P. M. when, the wind falling, ſhe rowed up with the packet, and, having exchanged ſeveral ſhots, ſheered off again. During the night ſhe frequently bore down, and ſhot was fired on both ſides. At five on Monday morning, it being calm, ſhe rowed up and grappled the Antelope on the ſtarboard ſide, pouring in a broadſide, and made an attempt to board, which was repulſed with great ſlaughter; by this broadſide, unfortunately, the maſter, Curtis, who commanded, fell, as did the ſhip's ſteward and a French gentleman, aid-de-camp to Monſ. Loppenos, a paſſenger, and the firſt mate, who was ſhot through the body; the command then devolved on the boatſwain, (for the ſecond mate had died of the fever after their ſailing from Port Royal,) who, with the few brave men left, aſſiſted by the paſſengers, repulſed repeated attempts to board, during a conſiderable time the veſſels were along-ſide. The boatſwain at laſt obſerving that they had cut their grapplings, and were attempting to ſheer off, ran aloft himſelf, and laſhed the privateer's ſquare-ſail yard to the Antelope's fore-ſhrouds, and immediately pouring in a few vollies of ſmall arms, which did great execution, the ſurvivors of the ſchooner's crew called for quarter, which was immediately granted them. The prize was taken poſſeſſion of, and carried into Annotta Bay about eleven next morning. The Antelope ſailed from Portugal with twenty-ſeven hands, but had four loſt before the action by the fever, and then two unfit for duty; ſo that reckoning four dead, two ill, and the doctor, who muſt neceſſarily go to his quarters in the cockpit, they entered the engagement with only twenty men, beſides the paſſengers. The Atalanta was fitted out at Charleſtown, mounted eight three-pounders, and carried fifty-ſix men.—Mr. Rodm, formerly of the navy, a paſſenger, ſignalized himſelf.

Return of the killed and wounded.

ATALANTA.

Killed during the action -	30
Since dead - - -	3
Firſt and ſecond captain wounded deſperately, firſt captain ſince dead - -	2
Wounded, but living -	14

ANTELOPE.

ANTELOPE.

Curtis, the maſter, killed -	1
Ship's ſteward killed - -	1
Wounded, ſince dead -	1
Wounded, firſt mate, Mitchell	1
Wounded - -	2

This appears to be the moſt gallant action that has happened during the war. The houſe of repreſentatives at Jamaica have voted five hundred guineas as a reward: two hundred to be paid to Curtis's widow, one hundred to Mitchell the firſt mate, one hundred to the boatſwain, and and one hundred among the reſt of the crew.

The Hermione frigate has captured an American ſhip called the Riſing Sun, mounting twenty guns, ſuppoſed to have a great quantity of money on-board belonging to the French commiſſary at St. Domingo, M. Santhonax, who has not yet been able to effect his eſcape.

The Arab Packet, ——, from Corunna to Falmouth, taken by the French, is re-taken, and arrived in Mount's Bay.

The Hyæna frigate is re-taken from the French in the Weſt-Indies.

Capt. George Murray, of La Nymphe, has taken and ſent into Portſmouth, a brig called the Mary, Iſaac Cuttex maſter, from Boſton, laden with coffee, cotton, indigo, and ſugar, bound to Havre-de-Grace.

The Sally letter of marque, belonging to Liverpool, has taken and carried into Scilly, a large American bark, laden with flour, &c. from Philadelphia to Breſt, after a chace of five hours and a half.

The Nyſus, Lieut. Abbott, has taken two large privateers which ſhe fell in with and captured, twelve leagues to the weſtward of the Land's End, after a very ſmart reſiſtance. They are two ſightly veſſels, one mounting ſixteen guns, and the other twenty; and have done conſiderable damage ſince they were fitted out.

The Prince of Wales letter of marque, Capt. Thompſon, has re-taken an Engliſh brig, and ſent her for Oporto, which had been captured by a French man of war of ſeventy-four guns.—The Prince of Wales has alſo taken and carried into Dublin, a large French merchant-ſhip from Breſt to Philadelphia, after a chace of ſix hours. She likewiſe took two French ſchooners, laden with brandy, which ſhe ſent into Waterford.

His majeſty's ſloop of war Zebra has captured the Swediſh brig Die Alte Fraudſhaft, Ichann Ohlſen, maſter, from Hamburgh, bound to Genoa, for having on-board property belonging to the French.

The George, of Liverpool, mounting twenty-four guns, taken by a French frigate bound to North America, is re-taken by the Powerful, of ſeventy-four guns, Capt. Otway, and arrived at Plymouth.

The Citoyen, loaded with ſtores for Pondicherry, is taken by Admiral Cornwallis, off Pondicherry.

The Ceres, Judas, from Guernſey, and Ant ſloop, of Cork, bound to Liſbon, taken by a French privateer, are re-taken by the Circe frigate.

The Marianne, Halling, from Liverpool to the South Seas, taken by the Flora French frigate, is re-taken by the Concord frigate, and arrived at Falmouth.

On the 28th of December a veſſel belonging to London brought into Barbadoes a ſhip from the South Fiſhery, under French colours, ſaid to be full.

On the 3d of January his majeſty's ſhip Beaulieu brought in a ſhip from the South Fiſhery, under American colours.

The ſchooner Le Courier, a prize to the King Grey, cut out of Ackeen, with a cargo of cotton and indigo, and five French gentlemen and two negroes on-board, is arrived at Port Royal, Jamaica.

The American ſhip Samſon, mounting ſixteen ſix and four pounders, and manned with forty men, loaded with ſugar, indigo, coffee, and cotton, and bound from Port-au-Prince to Baltimore, is taken by his majeſty's ſhip Penelope.—The Penelope has alſo taken the French ſhip Le Rapporteur, of fourteen guns, and ninety men, loaded with ſugar and coffee, and bound from Port-au-Prince to Bourdeaux.

The American brig Juno, loaded with copper ſugar-boilers, ſtills, &c. and having eight negroes and ſix thouſand dollars on board, from Port-au-Prince to the Havannah, is taken by the Alligator frigate, Capt. Affleck, and arrived at Port Royal.

A gallant and deſperate enterprize was ſome time ſince effected by a number of Engliſh ſailors, who had been taken priſoners by the French cruizers in the Weſt-Indies: about two hundred and fifty of them were confined at St. Marc, in the Bite of Leogane, and, exaſperated by extreme ill treatment, they reſolved to die or to gain their liberty; taking a favourable opportunity, they overpowered their guards, and then made towards the harbour, to ſeize a veſſel which might convey them to Jamaica: they were oppoſed by a large body of military and ſeveral hundreds of the inhabitants; a deſperate conflict enſued: the tars bravely effected their object, and of their number nineteen were killed and ſixteen wounded. The veſſel which they cut out of the harbour, and which is arrived at Jamaica, is valued at forty thouſand pounds.

RISE AND PROGRES OF THE NATIONAL DEBT.

THIS being a ſubject of conſiderable importance to every inhabitant of theſe kingdoms, we ſhall endeavour to give as clear and comprehenſive a view of it as the bounds preſcribed us will admit. In order to this, it may not be improper to refer back to the times that have gone before us, that we may the better diſcover the nature of public revenues, the manner of their expenditure, and the cauſes of public debt.

In that rude ſtate of ſociety which precedes the extenſion of commerce and the improvements of manufactures, when thoſe expenſive luxuries which commerce and manufactures can alone introduce are generally altogether unknown; the perſon who poſſeſſes a large revenue can ſpend or enjoy that revenue in no other way than by maintaining nearly as many people as it can maintain. Among our feudal anceſtors, the long time during which eſtates uſed to continue in the ſame family ſufficiently demonſtrates the general diſpoſition of people to live within their income. Though the ruſtic hoſpitality conſtantly exerciſed by the great landholders may not to us in the preſent times ſeem conſiſtent with that order which we are apt to conſider as inſeparably connected with good œconomy, yet we muſt certainly allow them to have been at leaſt ſo far frugal as not commonly to have ſpent their whole income. Some part of this money, perhaps, they ſpent in purchaſing the few objects of vanity and luxury with which the circumſtances of the times could furniſh them; but ſome part of it they ſeem commonly to have hoarded. They could not well indeed do any thing elſe but hoard whatever money they ſaved. To trade was diſgraceful to a gentleman; and to lend money at intereſt, which at that time was conſidered as uſury and prohibited by law, would have been ſtill more ſo.

The ſame diſpoſition to ſave and to hoard prevailed in the ſovereign as well as in the ſubjects. Among nations to whom commerce and manufactures are little known, the ſovereign is in a ſituation which naturally diſpoſes him to the parſimony requiſite for accumulation. In that ſituation the expence even of a ſovereign cannot be directed by that vanity which delights in the gaudy finery of a court. The ignorance of the times affords but few of the trinkets in which that finery conſiſts. Standing armies are not then neceſſary; ſo that the expence even of a ſovereign, like that of any other great lord, can be employed in ſcarce any thing but bounty to his tenants and hoſpitality to his retainers. But bounty and hoſpitality very ſeldom lead to extravagance; though vanity almoſt always does. All the ancient ſovereigns of Europe accordingly had treaſures. Every Tartar chief in the preſent times is ſaid to be rich.

In a commercial country abounding with every ſort of expenſive luxury, the ſovereign, in the ſame manner as almoſt all the great proprietors in his dominions, naturally ſpends a great part of his revenue in purchaſing thoſe luxuries. His own and the neighbouring countries ſupply him abundantly with all the coſtly trinkets which compoſe the ſplendid but inſignificant pageantry of a court. His ordinary expence becomes equal to his ordinary revenue, and it is well if it does not frequently exceed it. The amaſſing of treaſure can no longer be expected; and, when extraordinary exigencies require extraordinary expences, he muſt neceſſarily call upon his ſubjects for an extraordinary aid. The late king of Pruſſia and his father are the only great princes of Europe who, ſince the death of Henry IV. of France in 1610, are ſuppoſed to have amaſſed any conſiderable treaſure. The parſimony which leads to accumulation has become almoſt as rare in republican as in monarchical governments. The Italian republics, the United Provinces of the Netherlands, are all in debt. The canton of Berne is the ſingle republic in Europe which has amaſſed any conſiderable treaſure. The other Swiſs republics have not.

The taſte for ſome ſort of pageantry, for ſplendid buildings at leaſt and other public ornaments, frequently prevails as much in the apparently ſober ſenate-houſe of a little republic as in the diſſipated court of the greateſt king.

The want of parſimony in time of peace impoſes the neceſſity of contracting debt in time of war. When war comes, there is no money in the treaſury but what is neceſſary for carrying on the ordinary expence of the peace eſtabliſhment. In war an eſtabliſhment of three or four times that expence becomes neceſſary for the defence of the ſtate, and conſequently a revenue three or four times greater than the peace-revenue. Suppoſing that the ſovereign ſhould have, what he ſcarcely ever has, the immediate means of augmenting his revenue in proportion to the augmentation of his expence; yet ſtill the produce of the taxes, from which this increaſe of revenue muſt be drawn, will not begin to come into the treaſury till perhaps ten or twelve months after they are impoſed. But the moment in which war begins, or rather the moment in which it appears likely to begin, the army muſt be augmented, the fleets muſt be fitted out, the garriſoned towns muſt be put into a poſture of defence; that army, that fleet, thoſe garriſoned towns, muſt be furniſhed with arms, ammunition, and proviſions. An immediate and great expence muſt be incurred in that moment of immediate danger, which will not wait for the gradual and ſlow returns of the new taxes. In this exigency government can have no other reſources but in borrowing.

The ſame commercial ſtate of ſociety which, by the operation of moral cauſes, brings government in this manner into the neceſſity of borrowing, produces in the ſubjects both an ability and an inclination to lend. If it commonly brings along with it the neceſſity of borrowing, it likewiſe brings along with it the facility of doing ſo.

A country abounding with merchants and manufacturers neceſſarily abounds with a ſet of people thro' whoſe hands not only their own capitals, but the capitals of all thoſe who either lend them money or truſt them with goods, paſs as frequently or more frequently than the revenue of a private man, who without trade or buſineſs lives upon his income, paſſes through his hands. The revenue of ſuch a man can regularly paſs through his hands only once in a year. But the whole amount of the capital and credit of a merchant who deals in a trade of which the returns are very quick, may ſometimes paſs through his hands two, three, or four, times in a year. A country abounding with merchants and manufacturers, therefore, neceſſarily abounds with a ſet of people who have it at all times in their power to advance, if they chooſe to do ſo, a very large ſum of money to government. Hence the ability in the ſubjects of a commercial ſtate to lend.

The progreſs of the enormous debts which at preſent oppreſs, and will in the long run probably ruin, all the great nations of Europe, has been pretty uniform. In England, after the Revolution, when new connections with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics, the expences of the nation, not only in ſettling the new eſtabliſhment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals, on the continent, for the ſecurity of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, ſettling the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purpoſes, increaſed to an unuſual degree: inſomuch, that it was not thought adviſeable to raiſe all the expences of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, leſt the unacuſtomed weight of them ſhould create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the policy of the times to anticipate the revenues of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe ſums for the current ſervice of the ſtate, and to lay no more taxes upon the ſubject than would ſuffice to pay the annual intereſt of the ſums ſo borrowed; by this means converting the principal debt into a new ſpecies of property, transferable from one man to another at any time in any quantity.

This

This ſyſtem indeed ſeems to have had its original in the ſtate of Florence, A. D. 1344; which government then owed about 60,000l. ſterling; and, being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate ſum, called metaphorically a mount or bank, the ſhares whereof were transferable like our ſtocks, with intereſt at five per cent. the prices varying according to the exigencies of the ſtate. This laid the foundation of what is called the national debt: for a few long annuities created in the reign of Cha. II. will hardly deſerve that name.

Nations, like private men, have generally begun to borrow upon what may be called perſonal credit, without aſſigning or mortgaging any particular fund for the payment of the debt; and, when this reſource has failed them, they have gone on to borrow upon aſſignments or mortgages of particular funds.

What is called the unfunded debt of Great Britain is contracted in the former of thoſe two ways. It conſiſts partly in a debt which bears, or is ſuppoſed to bear, no intereſt, and which reſembles the debts that a private man contracts upon account; and partly in a debt which bears intereſt, and which reſembles what a private man contracts upon his bill or promiſſory note. The debts which are due either for extraordinary ſervices, or for ſervices either not provided for or not paid at the time when they are performed; part of the extraordinaries of the army, navy, and ordnance; the arrears of ſubſidies to foreign princes; thoſe of ſeamens wages, &c. uſually conſtitute a debt of the firſt kind. Navy and exchequer-bills, which are iſſued ſometimes in payment of a part of ſuch debts, and ſometimes for other purpoſes, conſtitute a debt of the ſecond kind; exchequer-bills bearing intereſt from the day on which they are iſſued, and navy-bills ſix months after they are iſſued. The bank of England, either by voluntarily diſcounting thoſe bills at their current value, or by agreeing with government for certain conſiderations to circulate exchequer-bills, that is, to receive them at par, paying the intereſt which happens to be due upon them, keeps up their value, and facilitates their circulation, and thereby frequently enables government to contract a very large debt of this kind. During the great recoinage in King William's time, when the bank of England thought proper to put a ſtop to its uſual tranſactions, exchequer-bills and tallies are ſaid to have ſold from twenty-five to ſixty per cent. diſcount; owing partly, no doubt, to the ſuppoſed inſtability of the new government eſtabliſhed by the Revolution, but partly too to the want of the ſupport of the bank of England.

When this reſource is exhauſted, and it becomes neceſſary, in order to raiſe money, to aſſign or mortgage ſome particular branch of the public revenue for the payment of the debt, government has upon different occaſions done this in two different ways. Sometimes it has made this aſſignment or mortgage for a ſhort period of time only, a year or a few years, for example; and ſometimes for perpetuity. In the one caſe, the fund was ſuppoſed ſufficient to pay within the limited time both principal and intereſt of the money borrowed: in the other it was ſuppoſed ſufficient to pay the intereſt only, or a perpetual annuity equivalent to the intereſt; government being at liberty to redeem at any time this annuity upon paying back the principal ſum borrowed. When money was raiſed in the one way, it was ſaid to be raiſed by anticipation; when in the other, by perpetual funding, or, more ſhortly, by funding.

In the reign of King William, when the debt began to be amaſſed, and during a great part of that of Queen Anne, before we had become ſo familiar as we are now with the practice of perpetual funding, the greater part of the new taxes were impoſed but for a ſhort period of time (for four, five, ſix, or ſeven, years only), and a great part of the grants of every year conſiſted in loans upon anticipation of the produce of thoſe taxes. The produce being frequently inſufficient for paying within the limited term the principal and intereſt of the money

borrowed, deficiencies aroſe; to make good which it became neceſſary to prolong the term.

On the 31ſt of December 1697, the funded and unfunded debts amounted to 21,515,742l. 13s. 8½d. at ſame time, in 1714, they were 53,681,076l. 5s. 6d. In 1755, before the breaking out of the war, they amounted to 72,289,673l. and on the 5th of Jan. 1763, at the concluſion of the peace, they had accumulated to 122,603,336l. 8s. 2¼d. of funded debt, and of unfunded 13,027,589l. 2s. 2d. more. In 1775, they were very nearly one hundred and thirty millions; and the laſt American war added upwards of one hundred and twenty millions more to that enormous ſum: to pay the intereſt of which, and the charges of management, amounting annually to nearly eight millions and an half, the extraordinary revenues (excepting only the land-tax and annual malt-tax) are in the firſt place mortgaged and made perpetual by parliament. Perpetual we ſay; but ſtill redeemable by the ſame authority that impoſed them: which, if it at any time can pay off the capital, will aboliſh thoſe taxes which are raiſed to diſcharge the intereſt.

By this means, then, the quantity of property in the kingdom is greatly increaſed in idea compared with former times; yet, if we coolly conſider it, not at all increaſed in reality. We may boaſt of large fortunes, and quantities of money in the funds. But where does this money exiſt? It exiſts only in name, in paper, in public faith, in parliamentary ſecurity: and that is undoubtedly ſufficient for the creditors of the public to rely on. But then what is the pledge which the public faith has pawned for the ſecurity of theſe debts? The land, the trade, and the perſonal induſtry of the ſubject; from which the money muſt ariſe that ſupplies the ſeveral taxes. In theſe therefore, and theſe only, the property of the public creditors does really and intrinſically exiſt; and of courſe the land, the trade, and the perſonal induſtry of individuals, are diminiſhed in their true value juſt ſo muſt as they are pledged to anſwer. If A's income amounts to 100l. per annum; and he is ſo far indebted to B, that he pays him 50l. per annum for his intereſt; one half of the value of A's property is transferred to B the creditor. The creditor's property exiſts in the demand which he has upon the debtor, and no where elſe; and the debtor is only a truſtee to his creditor for one half of the value of his income. In ſhort, the property a creditor of the public conſiſts in a certain portion of the national taxes; by how much therefore he is the richer, by ſo much the nation, which pays theſe taxes, is the poorer.

The only advantage that can reſult to a nation from public debts, is the increaſe of circulation, by multiplying the caſh of the kingdom, and creating a new ſpecies of currency, aſſignable at any time and in any quantity; always therefore ready to be employed in any beneficial undertaking, by means of this its transferable quality; and yet producing ſome profit even when it lies idle and unemployed. A certain proportion of debt ſeems to be highly uſeful to a trading people; but what that proportion is, it is not for us to determine. This much is indiſputably certain, that the preſent magnitude of our national incumbrances very far exceeds all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive of the greateſt inconveniences. For, firſt, the enormous taxes that are raiſed upon the neceſſaries of life for the payment of the intereſt of this debt are a hurt both to trade and manufactures, by raiſing the price as well of the artificer's ſubſiſtence as of the raw material, and of courſe, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itſelf. Nay, the very increaſe of paper-circulation itſelf, when extended beyond what is requiſite for commerce or foreign exchange, has a natural tendency to increaſe the price of proviſions as well as of all other merchandiſe. For as its effect is to multiply the caſh of the kingdom, and this to ſuch an extent that much muſt remain unemployed, that caſh (which is the univerſal meaſure of the reſpective values of all other commodities) muſt neceſſarily ſink in its own value,

value, and every thing grow comparatively dearer. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom annually a conſiderable quantity of ſpecie for the intereſt; or elſe it is made an argument to grant them unreaſonable privileges in order to induce them to reſide here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to ſubjects only, it is then charging the active and induſtrious ſubject, who pays his ſhare of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Laſtly, and principally, it weakens the internal ſtrength of a ſtate, by anticipating thoſe reſources which ſhould be reſerved to defend it in caſe of neceſſity. The intereſt we now pay for our debts would undoubtedly be ſufficient to maintain the moſt vigorous war that any national motives could poſſibly require. If indeed our anceſtors in king William's time had annually paid, ſo long as their exigencies laſted, a far leſs ſum than we now annually raiſe upon their accounts, they would not in time of war have borne ſo great burdens as they have bequeathed to and ſettled upon their poſterity in time of peace; and might have been eaſed the inſtant the exigence was over.

On the whole, then, the national debt is undoubtedly a ſubject of vaſt importance, and as ſuch it has been always conſidered; for much has been ſaid and written upon it, and many ſchemes have been propoſed at various times and by various perſons for gradually removing it, it being conſidered by the moſt judicious as a very pernicious incumbrance to a commercial country. Some, we are aware, think it of vaſt utility; but this opinion is too eccentric, and in our eſtimation too feebly ſupported, to be convincing. The public debt is indiſputably a great grievance; and every lover of his country muſt ſurely wiſh to ſee it removed: the period, however, when this bleſſing ſhall take place, if indeed it ever arrive, muſt at leaſt be very diſtant.

HISTORY OF THE BUCANEERS OF AMERICA.

THE name of Bucaneers was particularly given to the firſt French ſettlers on the iſland of St. Domingo, whoſe ſole employment conſiſted in hunting bulls or wild boars, in order to ſell their hides and fleſh. The name has alſo been applied to thoſe famous piratical adventurers, chiefly Engliſh and French, who joined together to make depredations on the Spaniards of America.

The Spaniards had not been long in the poſſeſſion of the Weſt Indies and the continent of America, when other nations, eſpecially the Engliſh and French, began to follow them there. But, though the Spaniards were unable to people ſuch extenſive countries themſelves, they were reſolved that no others ſhould do it for them; and therefore made a moſt cruel war on all thoſe of any other nation who attempted to ſettle in any of the Antilles or Caribbee iſlands. The French, however, were at laſt lucky enough to acquire ſome footing in the iſland of St. Chriſtopher's; but, by the time they began to ſubſide into a regular form of government, the Spaniards found means to diſlodge them. Upon this the wretched fugitives, conſidering at how great a diſtance they were from their mother-country, and how near to the iſland of Hiſpaniola or St. Domingo, the northern parts of which were then uninhabited and full of ſwine and black cattle, immediately reſolved to take poſſeſſion of that country, in conjunction with ſeveral other adventurers of their own and the Engliſh nation; eſpecially as the Dutch, who now began to appear in theſe ſeas, promiſed to ſupply them plentifully with all kinds of neceſſaries they might require, in exchange for the hides and tallow they ſhould procure by hunting.

Theſe new ſettlers obtained the name of bucaneers, from their cuſtom of bucanning their beef and pork in order to keep it for ſale, or for their own conſumption, the method of which will be preſently deſcribed. But ſome of them ſoon grew tired of this

this new way of life, and took to planting; while many more chose to turn pirates, trusting to find among those who remained on shore a quick sale for all the plunder they could make at sea. This new body of adventurers were called free-booters, from their making free prey or booty of whatever came in their way.

The colony now began to thrive at a great rate, by the cheap and easy manner in which the free-booters acquired the greatest riches, and the profusion with which they distributed them among their old companions the bucaneers and planters for the merest trifles. This brought numbers of settlers from Old France in quality of indented servants, though they toiled rather like slaves during the three years for which they generally bound themselves. One of these men presuming to represent to his master, who always fixed upon a Sunday for sending him with skins to the port, that God had forbidden such a practice, when he had declared, "Six days shalt thou labour, and on the seventh day shalt thou rest:" "And I (replied the brutal bucaneer) say to thee, Six days shalt thou kill bulls and strip them of their skins, and on the seventh day shalt thou carry their hides to the sea-shore." This command was followed by blows, which sometimes enforce obedience, sometimes disobedience, to the laws of God.

Thus the colony consisted of four classes: bucaneers; free-booters; planters; and indented servants, who generally remained with the bucaneers or planters. And these four orders composed what they now began to call the body of adventurers. These people lived together in a perfect harmony under a kind of democracy; every freeman had a despotic authority over his own family; and every captain was a sovereign in his own ship, though liable to be discarded at the discretion of the crew.

The planters settled chiefly in the little island of Tortuga on the northern coast of Hispaniola; but it was not long before, some of them going to the great hunt with the bucaneers, the rest were surprised by the Spaniards; and all, even those who had surrendered at discretion in hopes of mercy, were put to the sword or hanged.

The next care of the Spaniards was to rid the great island of the bucaneers; and for this reason they assembled a body of five hundred lancemen, who, by their seldom going fewer than fifty in a company, obtained the name of the Fifties from their enemies, whose manners and customs we shall now enter upon.

The bucaneers lived in little huts built on some spots of cleared ground, just large enough to dry their skins on, and contain their bucanning houses. These spots they called Boucans, and the huts they dwelt in Ajoupas, a word which they borrowed from the Spaniards, and the Spaniards from the natives. Though these ajoupas lay open on all sides, they were very agreeable to the hardy inhabitants, in a climate where wind and air are such very desirable things. As the bucaneers had neither wife nor child, they associated by pairs, and mutually rendered each other all the services a master could reasonably expect from a servant, living together in so perfect a community, that the survivor always succeeded his deceased partner. This kind of union or fellowship they called *s'emateloter*, insailoring, and each other *matelot*, sailor, whence is derived the custom of giving, at least in some parts of the French Antilles, the name *matelotage*, sailorage, to any kind of society formed by private persons for their mutual advantage. They behaved to each other with the greatest justice and openness of heart; it would have been a crime to keep any thing under lock and key; but, on the other hand, the least pilfering was unpardonable, and punished with expulsion from the community. And indeed there could be no great temptation to steal, when it was reckoned a point of honour never to refuse a neighbour what he wanted; and, where there was so little property, it was impossible there should be many disputes. If any happened, the com-

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mon friends of the parties at variance interpoſed, and ſoon put an end to the difference.

As to laws, the bucaneers acknowledged none but an odd jumble of conventions made between themſelves, which, however, they regarded as the ſovereign rule. They ſilenced all objections by coolly anſwering, that it was not the cuſtom of the coaſt; and grounded their right of acting in this manner on their baptiſm under the tropic, which freed them, in their opinion, from all obligations antecedent to that marine ceremony. The governor of Tortuga, when that iſland was again ſettled, though appointed by the French court, had very little authority over them; they contented themſelves with rendering him from time to time ſome ſlight homage. They had in a manner entirely ſhaken off the yoke of religion, and thought they did a great deal in not wholly forgetting the God of their fathers. We are ſurpriſed to meet with nations, among whom it is a difficult matter to diſcover any trace of a religious worſhip: and yet it is certain, that, had the bucaneers of St. Domingo been perpetuated on the ſame footing they ſubſiſted at the time we are ſpeaking of, the third or fourth generation of them would have as little religion as the Caffres and Hottentots of Africa, or the Topinambous and Cannibals of America.

They even laid aſide their ſurnames, and aſſumed nick-names, or martial names, moſt of which have continued in their families to this day. Many, however, on their marrying, which ſeldom happened till they turned planters, took care to have their real ſurnames inſerted in the marriage-contract; and this practice gave occaſion to a proverb ſtill current in the French Antilles, a man is not to be known till he takes a wife.

Their dreſs conſiſted of a filthy greaſy ſhirt, dyed with the blood of the animals they killed; a pair of trouſers ſtill more naſty: a thong of leather by way of belt, to which they hung a caſe containing ſome Dutch knives, and a kind of very ſhort ſabre called manchette; a hat without any brim except a little flap on the front to take hold of it by, and ſhoes of hog-ſkin all of a piece. Their guns were four feet and a half in the barrel, and of a bore to carry balls of an ounce. Every man had his contract ſervants, more or fewer according to his abilities; beſides a pack of twenty or thirty dogs, among which there was always a couple of beagles. Their chief employment at firſt was ox-hunting; and, if at any time they chaſed a wild hog, it was for paſtime, or to make proviſion for a feaſt, than for any other advantage. But, in proceſs of time, ſome of them betook themſelves entirely to hunting of hogs, whoſe fleſh they bucanned in the following manner: Firſt, they cut the fleſh into long pieces, an inch and a half thick, and ſprinkled them with ſalt, which they rubbed off after twenty-four hours. Then they dried theſe pieces in ſtoves over the fire made of the ſkin and bones of the beaſt till they grew as hard as a board, and aſſumed a deep brown colour. Pork prepared in this manner will keep in caſks a twelvemonth and longer; and, when ſteeped but a little while in luke-warm water, become plump and roſy, and yield moreover a moſt grateful ſmell, either broiled or boiled, or otherwiſe dreſſed, enough to tempt the moſt languid appetite, and pleaſe the moſt delicate palate. Thoſe who hunt the wild boar have of late been called ſimply hunters.

In hunting, they ſet out at day-break, preceded by the beagles, and followed by their ſervants with the reſt of the dogs; and, as they made it a point never to balk their beagles, they were often led by them over the moſt frightful precipices, and through places which any other mortal would have deemed abſolutely impaſſable. As ſoon as the beagles had rouſed the game, the reſt of the dogs ſtruck up and ſurrounded the beaſt, ſtopping it, and keeping a conſtant barking till the bucaneer could get near enough to ſhoot it; in doing this, he commonly aimed at the pit of the breaſt; when the beaſt fell, he ham-ſtrung it, to prevent its riſing again. But it has ſometimes happened that the creature, not wounded enough to tumble to the ground, has run furiouſly at his purſuer,

ſuer, and ripped him open. But, in general, the bucaneer ſeldom miſſed his aim; and, when he did, was nimble enough to get up the tree behind which he had the precaution to place himſelf. What is more, ſome of them have been ſeen to overtake the beaſt in chace, and hamſtring it without any further ceremony.

As ſoon as the prey was half ſkinned, the maſter cut out a large bone, and ſucked the marrow for breakfaſt. The reſt he left to his ſervants, one of whom always remained behind to finiſh the ſkinning, and bring the ſkin with a choice piece of meat for the huntſmens dinner. They then continued the chace till they had killed as many beaſts as there were heads in the company. The maſter was the laſt to return to the boucan, loaded like the reſt with a ſkin and a piece of meat. Here the bucaneers found their tables ready: for every one had his ſeparate table; which was the firſt thing, any way fit for the purpoſe, that came in their way, a ſtone, the trunk of a tree, and the like. No table-cloth, no napkin, no bread or wine, graced their board; not even potatoes or bananas, unleſs they found them ready to their hands. When this did not happen, the fat and lean of the game, taken alternately, ſerved to ſupply the place. A little pimento, and the ſqueeze of an orange, their only ſauce; contentment, peace of mind, a good appetite, and abundance of mirth, made every thing agreeable. Thus they lived and ſpent their time, till they had completed the number of hides for which they had agreed with the merchants; which done, they carried them to Tortuga, or ſome port of the great iſland.

As the bucaneers uſed much exerciſe, and fed only on fleſh-meat, they generally enjoyed a good ſtate of health. They were indeed ſubject to fevers, but either ſuch as laſted only a day, and left no ſenſible impreſſion the day following; or little ſlow fevers, which did not hinder them from action, and were of courſe ſo little regarded, that it was uſual with the patient, when aſked how he did, to anſwer, "Very well, nothing ails me but the fever." It was impoſſible, however, they ſhould not ſuffer conſiderably by ſuch fatigues under a climate to the heat of which few of them had been early enough inured. Hence the moſt conſiderate among them, after they had got money enough for that purpoſe, turned planters. The reſt ſoon ſpent the fruits of their labour in taverns and tippling-houſes; and many had ſo habituated themſelves to this kind of life, as to become incapable of any other. Nay, there have been inſtances of young men, who having early embarked thro' neceſſity in this painful and dangerous profeſſion, perſiſted in it afterwards, merely through a principle of libertiniſm, rather than return to France and take poſſeſſion of the moſt plentiful fortunes.

Such were the bucaneers of St. Domingo, and ſuch their ſituation, when the Spaniards undertook to extirpate them. And at firſt they met with great ſucceſs; for, as the bucaneers hunted ſeparately, every one attended by his ſervants, they were eaſily ſurpriſed. Hence the Spaniards killed numbers, and took many more, whom they condemned to a moſt cruel ſlavery. But, whenever the bucaneers had time to put themſelves into a ſtate of defence, they fought like lions, to avoid falling into the hands of a nation from whom they were ſure to receive no quarter; and by this means they often eſcaped: nay, there are many inſtances of ſingle men fighting their way through numbers. Theſe dangers, however, and the ſucceſs of the Spaniards in diſcovering their boucans, where they uſed to ſurpriſe and cut the throats of them and their ſervants in their ſleep, engaged them to cohabit in great numbers, and even to act offenſively, in hopes that by ſo doing they might at laſt induce the Spaniards to let them live in peace. But the fury with which they behaved whenever they met any Spaniards, ſerved only to make their enemies more intent on their deſtruction; and, aſſiſtance coming to both parties, the whole iſland was turned into a ſlaughter-houſe, and ſo much blood ſpilt on both ſides, that many places, on account of the carnage of which they had been the theatres, were intitled,

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of the maſſacre; ſuch as the hill of the maſſacre, the plain of the maſſacre, the valley of the maſſacre; which names they retain to this day.

At length the Spaniards grew tired of this way of proceeding, and had recourſe to their old method of ſurpriſe, which againſt enemies of more courage than vigilance was likely to ſucceed better. This put the bucaneers under a neceſſity of never hunting but in large parties, and fixing their boucans in the little iſlands on the coaſt, where they retired every evening. This expedient ſucceeded; and the boucans, by being more fixed, ſoon acquired the air and conſiſtency of little towns.

When the bucaneers had once fixed themſelves, as related, each boucan ordered ſcouts every morning to the higheſt part of the iſland, in order to reconnoitre the coaſt, and ſee if any Spaniſh parties were abroad. If no enemy appeared, they appointed a place and hour of rendezvous in the evening, and were never abſent if not killed or priſoners. When therefore any one of the company was miſſing, it was not lawful for the reſt to hunt again till they had got intelligence of him if taken, or avenged his death if killed.

Things continued in this ſituation for a long time, till the Spaniards made a general hunt over the whole iſland; and, by deſtroying their game, put the bucaneers under a neceſſity of betaking themſelves to another courſe of life. Some of them turned planters; and thereby increaſed ſome of the French ſettlements on the coaſt, and formed others. The reſt, not reliſhing ſo confined and regular a life, entered among the free-booters, who thereby became a very powerful body.

France, who had hitherto diſclaimed for her ſubjects theſe ruffians whoſe ſucceſſes were only temporary, acknowledged them, however, as ſoon as they formed themſelves into ſettlements; and took proper meaſures for the government and defence of St. Domingo.

The hunting both of the bull and boar is at this day carried on, and has proved of conſiderable importance. That of the former furniſhes France with the fineſt hides brought from America. The bucaneers put the hides in packs which they call loads, mixing together hides of full-grown bulls, of young bullocks, and of cows. Each of theſe loads is compoſed of two bull-hides, or of an equivalent; that is to ſay, either of two real bull-hides, or of one bull-hide and two cow-hides, or of four cow-hides, or of three young bullocks hides; three bullocks hides being reckoned equivalent to two full-grown bulls hides, and two cows hides equivalent to one bull's hide. Theſe bulls they commonly call oxen in France, though they be not gelt. Each load is commonly ſold for ſix pieces of eight rials, which is a Spaniſh coin, the French coin being but little current, or not at all, in the iſland of St. Domingo.

The boar-meat bucanned in the manner above-mentioned is ſold by the bundle or pack, weighing commonly ſixty pounds, at the rate of ſix pieces of eight per pack. The palmetto leaves ſerve to pack it up in; but their weight is deducted, ſo that there muſt be in each pack ſixty pounds of net fleſh. Theſe bucaneers have alſo a great trade of the lard of boars, which they melt, and gather in large pots called potiches. This lard, which is called mantegua, is alſo ſold for about eight pieces of eight per pot. There has been a great trade, and a great conſumption of each of theſe merchandiſes in the French ſettlements of the iſland of St. Domingo, and in thoſe of Tortuga: beſides which, they uſed to ſend great quantities of them to the Antilles, and even into the continent of French America. There is alſo a great deal of it ſold for the ſupport of the crews of the ſhips that come from France for trading, or which the privateers of Tortuga fit out for cruizing againſt the Spaniards.

The Spaniards, who have large ſettlements in the iſland of St. Domingo, have alſo their bucaneers there, whom they call matadores or monteros. Their chace has ſomething noble, which ſavours of the Spaniſh pride: the huntſman, being on horſeback, uſes the lance to ſtrike the bull, thinking it beneath his courage to ſhoot him

him at a diſtance. When the ſervants, who are on foot, have diſcovered the beaſt, and with their dogs have driven it into ſome ſavannah or meadow, in which the maſter waits for them on horſeback, armed with two lances, that matadore goes and hamſtrings it with the firſt lance, the head of which is made like a creſcent or half-moon, and extremely ſharp, and kills it afterwards with the other lance, which is a common one. This chace is very agreeable; the huntſman making commonly, in order to attack the bull, the ſame turns and the ſame ceremonies which are practiſed in thoſe feſtivals ſo famous in Spain, wherein the greateſt lords expoſe themſelves ſometimes to the view of the people, to make them admire their dexterity and intrepidity in attaking thoſe furious animals: but then it is a very dangerous chace; thoſe bulls, in their fury, often running directly againſt the huntſman, who may think himſelf very happy if he comes off only with the loſs of his horſe, and if he himſelf is not mortally wounded.

The Spaniards dreſs their hides like the French, who have learned it from them; and theſe hides being carried to the Havannah, are part of the trade of that celebrated town. The flota and the galleons ſcarce ever fail touching there, on their return from Vera Cruz and Porto Bello, and load there thoſe hides which they carry into Spain, where they are ſold for Havannah hides, the moſt eſteemed of any that are brought from America into Europe.

Before the Engliſh had made any ſettlement at Jamaica, and the French at St. Domingo, ſome pirates of both nations, who have ſince been ſo much diſtinguiſhed by the name of bucaneers, had driven the Spaniards out of the ſmall iſland of Tortuga; and, fortifying themſelves there, had with an amazing intrepidity made excurſions againſt the common enemy. They formed themſelves into ſmall companies, conſiſting of fifty, a hundred, or a hundred and fifty, men each. A boat, of a greater or ſmaller ſize, was their only armament. Here they were expoſed night and day to all the inclemencies of the weather, having ſcarcely room enough to lie down. A love of abſolute independence, the greateſt bleſſing to thoſe who are not proprietors of land, rendered them averſe from thoſe mutual reſtraints which the members of ſociety impoſe upon themſelves for the common good; ſome of them choſe to ſing, while others were deſirous of going to ſleep. As the authority they had conferred on their captain was confined to his giving orders in battle, they lived in the greateſt confuſion. Like the ſavages, having no apprehenſion of want, nor any care to preſerve the neceſſaries of life, they were conſtantly expoſed to the ſevereſt extremities of hunger and thirſt. But deriving, even from their very diſtreſſes, a courage ſuperior to every danger, the ſight of a ſhip tranſported them to a degree of frenzy. They never deliberated on the attack, but it was their cuſtom to board the ſhip as ſoon as poſſible. The ſmallneſs of their veſſels, and the ſkill they ſhewed in the management of them, ſcreened them from the fire of the greater ſhips; and they preſented only the fore part of their little veſſels filled with fuſileers; who fired at the portholes with ſo much exactneſs, that it entirely confounded the moſt experienced gunners. As ſoon as they threw out the grappling, the largeſt veſſels ſeldom eſcaped them.

In caſes of extreme neceſſity, they attacked the people of every nation, but fell upon the Spaniards at all times. They thought that the cruelties the latter had exerciſed on the inhabitants of the new world juſtified the implacable averſion they had ſworn againſt them. But this was heightened by a perſonal pique, from the mortification they felt in ſeeing themſelves debarred from the privilege of hunting and fiſhing, which they conſidered as natural rights. Such were their principles of juſtice and religion, that, whenever they embarked on any expedition, they uſed to pray to heaven for the ſucceſs of it; and they never came back from the plunder, but they conſtantly returned thanks to God for their victory.

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The ſhips that ſailed from Europe into America ſeldom tempted their avidity. The merchandiſe they contained would not eaſily have been ſold, nor been very profitable to theſe barbarians in thoſe early times. They always waited for them on their return, when they were certain that they were laden with gold, ſilver, jewels, and all the valuable productions of the new world. If they met with a ſingle ſhip, they never failed to attack her. As to the fleets, they followed them till they failed out of the gulph of Bahama; and, as ſoon as any one of the veſſels was ſeparated by accident from the reſt, it was taken. The Spaniards, who trembled at the approach of the bucaneers, whom they called devils, immediately ſurrendered. Quarter was granted, if the cargo proved to be a rich one; if not, all the priſoners were thrown into the ſea.

The bucaneers, when they had got a conſiderable booty, at firſt held their rendezvous at the iſland of Tortuga, in order to divide the ſpoil; but afterwards the French went to St. Domingo, and the Engliſh to Jamaica. Each perſon, holding up his hand, ſolemnly proteſted, that he had ſecreted nothing of what he had taken. If any one among them was convicted of perjury, a caſe that ſeldom happened, he was left, as ſoon as an opportunity offered, upon ſome deſert iſland, as a traitor unworthy to live in ſociety. Such brave men among them as had been maimed in any of their expeditions, were firſt provided for. If they had loſt a hand, an arm, a leg, or a foot, they received 26l. An eye, a finger, or a toe, loſt in fight, was valued only at half the above ſum. The wounded were allowed 2s. 6d. a day for two months, to enable them to have their wounds taken care of. If they had not money enough to anſwer theſe ſeveral demands, the whole company were obliged to engage in ſome freſh expedition, and to continue it till they had acquired a ſufficient ſtock to enable them to ſatisfy ſuch honourable contracts.

After this act of juſtice and humanity, the remainder of the booty was divided into as many ſhares as there were bucaneers. The commander could only lay claim to a ſingle ſhare as the reſt; but they complimented him with two or three, in proportion as he had acquitted himſelf to their ſatisfaction. Favour never had any influence in the diviſion of the booty; for every ſhare was determined by lot. Inſtances of ſuch rigid juſtice as this are not eaſily met with; and they extended even to the dead. Their ſhare was given to the man who was known to be their companion when alive, and therefore their heir. If the perſon who had been killed had no intimate, his part was ſent to his relations when they were known. If there were no friends or relations, it was diſtributed in charity to the poor.

When theſe duties had been complied with, they then indulged themſelves in all kinds of profuſion. Unbounded licentiouſneſs in gaming, wine, women, every kind of debauchery, was carried to the utmoſt pitch of exceſs, and was ſtopped only by the want which ſuch profuſions brought on. Thoſe men who were enriched with ſeveral millions were in an inſtant totally ruined, and deſtitute of clothes and proviſions. They returned to ſea; and the new ſupplies they acquired were ſoon laviſhed in the ſame manner.

The Spaniſh colonies, flattering themſelves with the hopes of ſeeing an end to their miſeries, and reduced almoſt to deſpair in finding themſelves a perpetual prey to theſe ruffians, grew weary of navigation. They gave up all the power, conveniences, and fortune, which their connections procured them, and formed themſelves almoſt into ſo many diſtinct and ſeparate ſtates. They were ſenſible of the inconveniences ariſing from ſuch a conduct, and avowed them; but the dread of falling into the hands of rapacious and ſavage men had greater influence over them than the dictates of honour, intereſt, and policy. This was the riſe of that ſpirit of inactivity which continues to this time.

This deſpondency ſerved only to increaſe the boldneſs of the bucaneers. As yet they had only appeared in the Spaniſh ſettlements in order to carry off ſome proviſions when they were in

want of them. They no ſooner found their captures begin to diminiſh, than they determined to recover by land what they had loſt at ſea. The richeſt and moſt populous countries of the continent were plundered and laid waſte. The culture of lands was equally neglected with navigation; and the Spaniards dared no more appear in their public roads than ſail in the latitudes which belonged to them.

Among the bucaneers who ſignalized themſelves in this new ſpecies of excurſions, Montbar, a gentleman of Languedoc, particularly diſtinguiſhed himſelf. Having by chance, in his infancy, met with a circumſtantial account of the cruelties practiſed in the conqueſt of the new world, he conceived an averſion which he carried to a degree of frenzy againſt that nation which had committed ſuch enormities. The enthuſiaſm this ſpirit of humanity worked him up to, was turned into a rage more cruel than that of religious fanaticiſm, to which ſo many victims had been ſacrificed. The names of theſe unhappy ſufferers ſeemed to rouze him, and call upon him for vengeance. He had heard ſome account of the bucaneers, who were ſaid to be the moſt inveterate enemies to the Spaniſh name: he therefore embarked on-board a ſhip, in order to join them.

In the paſſage they met with a Spaniſh veſſel; attacked it; and, as it was uſual in thoſe times, immediately boarded it. Montbar, with a ſabre in his hand, fell upon the enemy; broke through them; and, hurrying twice from one end of the ſhip to the other, levelled every thing that oppoſed him. When he had compelled the enemy to ſurrender, leaving to his companions the happineſs of dividing ſo rich a booty, he contented himſelf with the ſavage pleaſure of contemplating the dead bodies of the Spaniards, lying in heaps together, againſt whom he had ſworn a conſtant and deadly hatred.

Freſh opportunities ſoon occurred that enabled him to exert this ſpirit of revenge, without extinguiſhing it. The ſhip he was in arrived at the coaſt of St. Domingo; where the bucaneers on land immediately applied to barter ſome proviſions for brandy. As the articles they offered were of little value, they alledged in excuſe, that their enemies had over-run the country, laid waſte their ſettlements, and carried off all they could. "Why (replied Montbar) do you tamely ſuffer ſuch inſults?" "Neither do we (anſwered they in the ſame tone); the Spaniards have experienced what kind of men we are, and have therefore taken advantage of the time when we were engaged in hunting. But we are going to join ſome of our companions, who have been ſtill more ill-treated than we; and then we ſhall have warm work." "If you approve of it (anſwered Montbar), I will head you, not as your commander, but as the foremoſt to expoſe myſelf to danger." The bucaneers, perceiving from his appearance that he was ſuch a man as they wanted, cheerfully accepted his offer. The ſame day they overtook the enemy, and Montbar attacked them with an impetuoſity that aſtoniſhed the braveſt. Scarcely one Spaniard eſcaped the effects of his fury. The remaining part of his life was equally diſtinguiſhed as on this day. The Spaniards ſuffered ſo much from him, both by land and at ſea, that he acquired the name of the Exterminator.

His ſavage diſpoſition, as well as that of the other bucaneers who attended him, having obliged the Spaniards to confine themſelves within their ſettlements, theſe free-booters reſolved to attack them there. This new method of carrying on the war required ſuperior forces; and their aſſociations in conſequence became more numerous. The firſt that was conſiderable was formed by Lolonois, who derived his name from the ſands of Olones, the place of his birth. From the abject ſtate of a bondſman, he had gradually raiſed himſelf to the command of two canoes, with twenty-two men. With theſe he was ſo ſucceſsful as to take a Spaniſh frigate on the coaſt of Cuba. He then repaired to the Port-au-Prince, in which were four ſhips, fitted out purpoſely to ſail in purſuit of him. He took them, and threw all the crew into the ſea except one man, whom he ſaved, in order to ſend him with a letter to the

governor

governor of the Havannah, acquainting him with what he had done, and aſſuring him that he would treat in the ſame manner all the Spaniards that ſhould fall into his hands, not excepting the governor himſelf, if he ſhould be ſo fortunate as to take him. After this expedition, he ran his canoes and prize-ſhips aground, and ſailed with his frigate only to the iſland of Tortuga.

Here he met with Michael de Baſco, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf by having taken, even under the cannon of Porto Bello, a Spaniſh ſhip, eſtimated at 218,500l. and by other actions equally brave and daring. Theſe two gave out, that they were going to embark together on an expedition equally glorious and profitable; in conſequence of which they ſoon collected together four hundred and forty men. This body of men, the moſt numerous the bucaneers had yet been able to muſter, ſailed to the bay of Venezuela, which runs up into the country for the ſpace of fifty leagues. The fort that was built at the entrance of it for its defence was taken; the cannon were nailed up; and the whole garriſon, conſiſting of two hundred and fifty men, put to death. They then reimbarked, and came to Maracaybo, built on the weſtern coaſt of the lake of the ſame name, at the diſtance of ten leagues from its mouth. This city, which had become flouriſhing and rich by its trade in ſkins, tobacco, and cocoa, was deſerted. The inhabitants had retired with their effects to the other ſide of the bay. If the bucaneers had not loſt a fortnight in riot and debauch, they would have found at Gibraltar, near the extremity of the lake, every thing that the inhabitants had ſecreted to ſecure it from being plundered. On the contrary, they met with fortifications lately erected, which they had the uſeleſs ſatisfaction of making themſelves maſters of at the expence of a great deal of blood; for the inhabitants had already removed to a diſtance the moſt valuable part of their property. Exaſperated at this diſappointment, they ſet fire to Gibraltar. Maracaybo would have ſhared the ſame fate, had it not been ranſomed. Beſides the ſum they received for its ranſom, they alſo carried off with them all the croſſes, pictures, and bells, of the churches; intending, as they ſaid, to build a chapel in the iſland of Tortuga, and to conſecrate this part of their ſpoils to ſacred purpoſes. Such was the religion of theſe barbarous people, who could make no other offering to heaven than that which aroſe from their robberies and plunder.

While they were idly diſſipating the ſpoils they had made on the coaſt of Venezuela, Morgan, the moſt renowned of the Engliſh bucaneers, ſailed from Jamaica to attack Porto Bello. His plan of operations was ſo well contrived, that he ſurpriſed the city, and took it without oppoſition.

The conqueſt of Panama was an object of much greater importance. To ſecure this, Morgan thought it neceſſary to ſail in the latitudes of Coſta Ricca; to procure ſome guides in the iſland of St. Catharine's, where the Spaniards confined their malefactors. This place was ſo ſtrongly fortified, that it ought to have held out for ten years againſt a conſiderable army. Notwithſtanding this, the governor, on the firſt appearance of the pirates, ſent privately to concert meaſures how he might ſurrender himſelf without incurring the imputation of cowardice. The reſult of this conſultation was, that Morgan, in the night-time, ſhould attack a fort at ſome diſtance, and the governor ſhould ſally out of the citadel to defend a poſt of ſo much conſequence; that the aſſailants ſhould then attack him in the rear, and take him priſoner, which would conſequently occaſion a ſurrender of the place. It was agreed that a ſmart firing ſhould be kept up on both ſides, without doing miſchief to either. This farce was admirably carried on. The Spaniards, without being expoſed to any danger, appeared to have done their duty; and the bucaneers, after having totally demoliſhed the fortifications, and put on-board their veſſels a prodigious quantity of warlike ammunition which they found at St. Catharine's, ſteered their courſe towards the river Chagre, the only channel

channel that was open to them to arrive at the place which was the object of their utmoſt wiſhes.

At the entrance of this conſiderable river, a fort was built upon a ſteep rock, which the waves of the ſea conſtantly beat againſt. This bulwark, very difficult of acceſs, was defended by an officer whoſe extraordinary abilities were equal to his courage, and by a garriſon that deſerved ſuch a commander. The bucaneers, for the firſt time, here met with a reſiſtance that could only be equalled by their perſeverance: it was a doubtful point, whether they would ſucceed or be obliged to raiſe the ſiege, when a lucky accident happened that proved favourable to their glory and their fortune. The commander was killed, and the fort accidentally took fire; the beſiegers then, taking advantage of this double calamity, made themſelves maſters of the place.

Morgan left his veſſels at anchor, with a ſufficient number of men to guard them; and ſailed up the river in his ſloops for thirty-three miles, till he came to Cruces, where it ceaſes to be navigable. He then proceeded by land to Panama, which was only five leagues diſtant. Upon a large and extenſive plain that was before the city, he met with a conſiderable body of troops, whom he put to flight with the greateſt eaſe, and entered into the city, which was now abandoned. Here were found prodigious treaſures concealed in the wells and caves. Some valuable commodities were alſo taken upon the boats that were left aground at low water; and in the neighbouring foreſts were alſo found ſeveral rich depoſits. Having burnt the city, they ſet ſail with a great numbers of priſoners, who were ranſomed a few days after; and came to mouth of the Chagre with a prodigious booty.

In 1603, an expedition of the greateſt conſequence was formed by Van Horn, a native of Oſtend, but who had ſerved all his life among the French. His intrepidity would never let him ſuffer the leaſt ſigns of cowardice among thoſe who aſſociated with him. In the heat of an engagement, he went about his ſhip; ſucceſſively obſerved his men; and immediately killed thoſe who ſhrank at the ſudden report of a piſtol, gun, or cannon. This extraordinary diſcipline had made him become the terror of the coward and the idol of the brave. In other reſpects, he readily ſhared with the men of ſpirit and bravery the immenſe riches that were acquired by ſo truly warlike a diſpoſition. When he went upon theſe expeditions, he generally ſailed in his frigate, which was his own property. But theſe new deſigns requiring greater numbers to carry them into execution, he took to his aſſiſtance Gramont, Godfey, and Jonqué, three Frenchmen diſtinguiſh- by their exploits; and Lawrence de Graff, a Dutchman, who had ſignalized himſelf himſelf ſtill more than they. Twelve hundred bucaneers joined themſelves to theſe famous commanders, and ſailed in ſix veſſels for Vera Cruz.

The darkneſs of the night favoured their landing, which was effected at three leagues from the place, where they arrived without being diſcovered. The governor, the fort, the barracks, and the poſts of the greateſt conſequence, every thing, in ſhort, that could occaſion any reſiſtance, was taken by the break of day. All the citizens, men, women, and children, were ſhut up in the churches, whither they had fled for ſhelter. At the door of each church were placed barrels of gunpowder to blow up the building. A bucaneer, with a lighted match, was to ſet fire to it upon the leaſt appearance of an inſurrection.

While the city was kept in ſuch terror, it was eaſily pillaged; and, after the bucaneers had carried off what was moſt valuable, they made a propoſal to the citizens, who were kept priſoners in the churches, to ranſom their lives and liberties by a contribution of 437,500l. Theſe unfortunate people, who had neither eaten nor drunk for three days, cheerfully accepted the terms that were offered them. Half of the money was paid the ſame day: the other part was expected from the internal parts of the country; when there appeared on an eminence a conſiderable body of troops advancing, and near the port

a fleet of ſeventeen ſhips from Europe. At the ſight of this armament, the bucaneers, without any marks of ſurprize, retreated quietly, with one thouſand five hundred ſlaves they had carried off with them as a trifling indemnification for the reſt of the money they expected, the ſettling of which they referred to a more favourable opportunity.

Their retreat was equally daring. They boldly ſailed through the midſt of the Spaniſh fleet; which let them paſs without firing a ſingle gun, and were in fact rather afraid of being attacked and beaten. The Spaniards would not probably have eſcaped ſo eaſily, and with no other inconvenience but what aroſe from their fears, if the veſſels of the pirates had not been laden with ſilver, or if the Spaniſh fleet had been freighted with any other effects but ſuch merchandiſe as were little valued by theſe pirates.

A year had ſcarcely elapſed ſince their return from Mexico, when on a ſudden they were all ſeized with the rage of going to plunder the country of Peru. It is probable, that the hope of finding greater treaſures upon a ſea little frequented, than on one long expoſed to piracies of this kind, was the cauſe of this expedition. But it is ſomewhat remarkable, that both the Engliſh and French, and the particular aſſociations of theſe two nations, had projected this plan at the ſame time, without any communication, intercourſe, or deſign of acting in concert with each other. About four thouſand men were employed in this expedition. Some of them came by Terra Firma, others by the ſtraits of Magellan, to the place that was the object of their wiſhes. If the intrepidity of theſe barbarians had been directed, under the influence of a ſkilful and reſpectable commander, to one ſingle uniform end, it is certain that they would have deprivthe Spaniards of this important colony. But their natural character was an invincible obſtacle to ſo rare an union; for they always formed themſelves into ſeveral diſtinct bodies, ſometimes even ſo few in number as ten or twelve, who acted together, or ſeparated, as the moſt trifling caprice directed. Grognier, Lécuyer, Picard, and Le Sage, were the moſt diſtinguiſhed officers among the French: David, Samms, Peter, Wilner, and Towley, among the Engliſh.

Such of thoſe adventurers as had got into the South Sea by the ſtraits of Darien ſeized upon the firſt veſſels they found upon the coaſt. Their aſſociates, who had ſailed in their own veſſels, were not much better provided. Weak however as they were, they beat ſeveral times the ſquadrons that were fitted out againſt them. But theſe victories were prejudicial to them, as they interrupted their navigation. When there were no more ſhips to be taken, they were continually obliged to make deſcents upon the coaſts to get proviſions, or to go by land in order to plunder thoſe cities where the booty was ſecured. They ſucceſſively attacked Seppa, Puebla-Nuevo, Leon, Realejo, Puebla-Viejo, Chiriquita, Leſparſo, Granada, Villia, Nicoya, Tecoanteca, Mucmeluna, Chiloteca, New-Segovia, and Guayaquil, the moſt conſiderable of all theſe places.

Many of them were taken by ſurprize; and moſt of them deſerted by their inhabitants, who fled at the ſight of the enemy. As ſoon as they took a town, it was directly ſet on fire, unleſs a ſum proportioned to its value was given to ſave it. The priſoners taken in battle were maſſacred without mercy, if they were not ranſomed by the governor or ſome of the inhabitants: gold, pearls, or precious ſtones, were the only things accepted of for the payment of their ranſom. Silver being too common, and too weighty for its current value, would have been troubleſome to them. The chances of fortune, that ſeldom leave guilt unpuniſhed, nor adverſity without a compenſation for its ſuffering, atoned for the crimes committed in the conqueſt of the new world, and the Indians were amply revenged of the Spaniards.

While ſuch piracies were committed on the ſouthern ocean, the northern was threatened with the ſame by Gramont. He was a native of Paris, by birth a gentleman, and had diſtinguiſhed

guiſhed himſelf in a military capacity in Europe; but his paſſion for wine, gaming, and women, had obliged him to join the pirates. He was, however, affable, polite, generous, and eloquent: he was endued with a ſound judgment, and was a perſon of approved valour; which ſoon made him be conſidered as the chief of the French bucaneers. As ſoon as it was known that he had taken up arms, he was immediately joined by a number of brave men. The governor of St. Domingo, who had at length prevailed upon his maſter to approve of the project, equally wiſe and juſt, of fixing the pirates to ſome place, and inducing them to become cultivators, was deſirous of preventing the concerted expedition, and forbad it in the king's name. Gramont, who had a greater ſhare of ſenſe than his aſſociates, was not on that account more inclined to comply, and ſternly replied: "How can Louis diſapprove of a deſign he is unacquainted with, and which has been planned only a few days ago?" This anſwer highly pleaſed all the bucaneers; who directly embarked, in 1685, to attack Campeachy.

They landed without oppoſition: but at ſome diſtance from the coaſt they were attacked by 800 Spaniards, who were beaten and purſued to the town, where both parties entered at the ſame time. The cannon they found there was immediately levelled againſt the citadel. As it had very little effect, they were contriving ſome ſtratagem to enable them to become maſters of the place, when intelligence was brought that it was abandoned. There remained in it only a gunner; an Engliſhman; and an officer of ſuch ſignal courage, that he choſe rather to expoſe himſelf to the greateſt extremities, than baſely to fly from the place with the reſt. The commander of the bucaneers received him with marks of diſtinction, generouſly releaſed him, gave him up all his effects, and beſides complimented him with ſome valuable preſents: ſuch influence have courage and fidelity even on the minds of thoſe who ſeem to violate all the rights of ſociety.

The conquerors of Campeachy ſpent two months in ſearching all the environs of the city, for twelve or fifteen leagues, carrying off every thing that the inhabitants, in their flight, thought they had preſerved. When all the treaſure they had collected from every quarter was depoſited in the ſhips, a propoſal was made to the governor of the province, who ſtill kept the field with nine hundred men, to ranſom his capital city. His refuſal determined them to burn it, and to demoliſh the citadel. The French, on the feſtival of St. Louis, were celebrating the anniverſary of their king; and, in the tranſports of of their patriotiſm, intoxication, and national love of their prince, they burnt to the value of a million of logwood; a part, and a very conſiderable one too, of the ſpoil they had made. After this ſingular and extravagant inſtance of folly, of which Frenchmen only could boaſt, they returned to St. Domingo.

In 1697, 1200 bucaneers were induced to join a ſquadron of ſeven ſhips that ſailed from Europe under the command of Pointis, to attack the famous city of Carthagena. This was the moſt difficult enterpriſe that could be attempted in the new world. The ſituation of the port, the ſtrength of the place, the badneſs of the climate, were ſo many obſtacles that ſeemed inſurmountable to any but ſuch men as the bucaneers were. But every obſtacle yielded to their valour and good fortune: the city was taken, and booty gained to the amount of 1,750,000l. Their rapacious commander, however, deprived them of the advantages reſulting from their ſucceſs. He ſcrupled not, as ſoon as they ſet ſail, to offer 525ol. for the ſhare of thoſe who had been the chief inſtruments in procuring him ſo conſiderable a ſpoil.

The bucaneers, exaſperated at this treatment, reſolved immediately to board the veſſel called the Sceptre, where Pointis himſelf was, and which at that time was too far diſtant from the reſt of the ſhips to expect to be aſſiſted by them. This avaricious commander was upon the point of being maſſacred, when one of the malcontents

malcontents cried out: "Brethren, why ſhould we attack this raſcal? he has carried off nothing that belongs to us. He has left our ſhare at Carthagena, and there we muſt go to recover it." This propoſal was received with general applauſe. A ſavage joy at once ſucceeded that gloomy melancholy which had ſeized them; and without further deliberation all their ſhips ſailed towards the city.

As ſoon as they had entered the city without meeting with any reſiſtance, they ſhut up all the men in the great church, and exacted payment of 218,750l. the amount of their ſhare of booty which they had been defrauded of; promiſing to retreat immediately upon their compliance, but threatening the moſt dreadful vengeance if they refuſed. Upon this, the moſt venerable prieſt in the city mounted the pulpit, and made uſe of the influence his character, his authority, and his eloquence, gave him, to perſuade his hearers to yield up without reſerve all the gold, ſilver, and jewels, they had. The collection, which was made after the ſermon, not furniſhing the ſum required, the city was ordered to be plundered. At length, after amaſſing all they could, theſe adventurers ſet ſail; when unfortunately they met with a fleet of Dutch and Engliſh ſhips, both which nations were then in alliance with Spain. Several of the pirates were either taken or ſunk, with all the cargo they had on board their ſhips; the reſt eſcaped to St. Domingo.

Such was the laſt memorable event in the hiſtory of the bucaneers. The ſeparation of the Engliſh and French, when the war, on account of the prince of Orange, divided the two nations: the ſucceſsful means they both made uſe of to promote the cultivation of land among their colonies, by the aſſiſtance of theſe enterpriſing men; and the prudence they ſhewed in fixing the moſt diſtinguiſhed among them, and entruſting them with civil and military employments: the protection they were both under a neceſſity of affording to the Spaniſh ſettlements, which till then had been a general object of plunder: all theſe circumſtances, and various others, beſides the impoſſibility there was of ſupplying the place of theſe remarkable men, who were now continually dropping off, concurred to put an end to a ſociety as extraordinary as ever exiſted. Without any regular ſyſtem, without laws, without any degree of ſubordination, and even without any fixed revenue, they became the aſtoniſhment of that age in which they lived, as they will be alſo of the lateſt poſterity.

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

CHRISTINA, QUEEN OF SWEDEN.

CHRISTINA, daughter of Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden, was born in 1626; and ſucceeded to the crown in 1633, when only ſeven years of age. This princeſs diſcovered even in her infancy, what ſhe afterwards expreſſed in her memoirs, an invincible antipathy for the employments and converſation of women; and ſhe had the natural awkwardneſs of a man with reſpect to all the little works which generally fall to their ſhare. She was, on the contrary, fond of violent exerciſes, and ſuch amuſements as conſiſt in feats of ſtrength and activity. She had alſo both ability and taſte for abſtracted ſpeculations; and amuſed herſelf with language and the ſciences, particularly that of legiſlature and government. She derived her knowledge of ancient hiſtory from its ſource; and Polybius and Thucydides were her favourite authors. As ſhe was the ſovereign of a powerful kingdom, it is not ſtrange that almoſt all the princes in Europe aſpired to her bed. Among others, were the prince of Denmark, the Elector Palatine, the Elector of Brandenburg, the King of Spain, the King of the Romans, Don John of Auſtria; Sigiſmund of Rockocci, count and general of Caſſovia; Staniſlaus king of Poland; John Caſſimir his brother; and Charles Guſtavus duke of Deux Ponts, of the Bava-

rian Palatinate family, ſon of her father the great Guſtavus's ſiſter, and conſequently her firſt couſin. To this nobleman, as well as to all his competitors, ſhe conſtantly refuſed her hand; but ſhe cauſed him to be appointed her ſucceſſor by the ſtates. Political intereſts, differences of religion, and contrariety of manners, furniſhed Chriſtina with pretences for rejecting all her ſuitors; but her true motives were the love of independence, and a ſtrong averſion ſhe had conceived even in her infancy from the marriage yoke. "Do not force me to marry (ſaid ſhe to the ſtates); for, if I ſhould have a ſon, it is not more probable that he ſhould be an Auguſtus than a Nero."

An accident happened in the beginning of her reign, which gave her a remarkable opportunity of diſplaying the ſtrength and equanimity of her mind. As ſhe was at the chapel of the caſtle of Stockholm, aſſiſting at divine ſervice with the principal lords of her court, a poor wretch, who was diſordered in his mind, came to the place with a deſign to aſſaſſinate her. This man, who was preceptor of the college, and in the full vigour of his age, choſe, for the execution of his deſign, the moment in which the aſſembly was performing what in the Swediſh church is called an act of recollection; a ſilent and ſeparate act of devotion, performed by each individual kneeling and hiding the face with the hand. Taking this opportunity, he ruſhed through the crowd, and mounted a balluſtrade within which the queen was upon her knees. The Baron Braki, chief juſtice of Sweden, was alarmed, and cried out; and the guards croſſed their partiſans, to prevent his coming further: but he ſtruck them furiouſly on one ſide; leaped over the barrier; and, being then cloſe to the queen, made a blow at her with a knife which he had concealed without a ſheath in his ſleeve. The queen avoided the blow, and puſhed the captain of her guards, who inſtantly threw himſelf upon the aſſaſſin, and ſeized him by the hair. All this happened in leſs than a moment of time. The man was known to be mad, and therefore nobody ſuppoſed he had any accomplices: they therefore contented themſelves with locking him up; and the queen returned to her devotion without the leaſt emotion that could be perceived by the people, who were much more frightened than herſelf.

One of the great affairs that employed Chriſtina while ſhe was upon the throne, was the peace of Weſtphalia, in which many claſhing intereſts were to be reconciled, and many claims to be aſcertained. It was concluded in the month of October 1648. The ſucceſs of the Swediſh arms rendered Chriſtina the arbitreſs of this treaty; at leaſt as to the affairs of Sweden, to which this peace confirmed the poſſeſſion of many important countries. No public event of importance took place during the reſt of Chriſtina's reign; for there were neither wars abroad, nor troubles at home. This quiet might be the effect of chance; but it might alſo be the effect of a good adminiſtration, and the great reputation of the queen; and the love her people had for her ought to lead us to this determination. Her reign was that of learning and genius. She drew about her, wherever ſhe was, all the diſtinguiſhed characters of her time: Grotius, Paſcal, Bochart, Deſcartes, Gaſſendi, Saumaiſe, Naude, Voſſius, Heinſius, Meibom, Scudery, Menage, Lucas, Honſtenius, Lambecius, Bayle, madame Dacier, Filicaia, and many others. The arts never fail to immortalize the prince who protects them; and almoſt all theſe illuſtrious perſons have celebrated Chriſtina, either in poems, letters, or literary productions of ſome other kind, the greater part of which are now forgotten. They form, however, a general cry of praiſe, and a maſs of teſtimonials which may be conſidered as a ſolid baſis of reputation. Chriſtina, however, may be juſtly reproached with want of taſte, in not properly aſſigning the rank of all theſe perſons, whoſe merits, tho' acknowledged, were yet unequal; particularly for not having been ſufficiently ſenſible of the ſuperiority of Deſcartes, whom ſhe diſguſted, and at laſt wholly neglected. The rapid fortune which the adventurer Michon,

chon, known by the name of Bourdelot, acquired by her countenance and liberality, was alſo a great ſcandal to literature. He had no pretenſions to learning; and, though ſprightly, was yet indecent. He was brought to court by the learned Saumaiſe; and, for a time, drove literary merit entirely out of it, making learning the object of his ridicule, and exacting from Chriſtina an exorbitant tribute to the weakneſs and inconſtancy of her ſex; for even Chriſtina, with reſpect to this man, proved herſelf not averſe to ſexual enjoyment, or the ſweets of love; though in her amours ſhe betrayed a wavering and inconſtant mind. At laſt ſhe was compelled, by the public indignation, to baniſh this unworthy minion: and he was no ſooner gone, than her regard for him was at an end. She was aſhamed of the favour ſhe had ſhewn him; and, in a ſhort time, thought of him with hatred or contempt. This Bourdelot, during his aſcendency over the queen, had ſupplanted count Magnus de la Gardie, ſon of the conſtable of Sweden, who was a relation, a favourite, and perhaps the lover, of Chriſtina. M. de Motteville, who had ſeen him ambaſſador in France, ſays, in the memoirs, that he ſpoke of his queen in terms ſo paſſionate and reſpectful, that every one concluded his attachment to her to be more ardent and tender than a mere ſenſe of duty can produce. This nobleman fell into diſgrace becauſe he ſhewed an inclination to govern; while M. Bourdelot ſeemed to aim at nothing more than to amuſe; and concealed, under the unſuſpected character of a droll, the real aſcendency which he exerciſed over the queen's mind.

About this time, an accident happened to Chriſtina which brought her into ſtill greater danger than that which has been related already. Having given orders for ſome ſhips of war to be built at the port of Stockholm, ſhe went to ſee them when they were finiſhed; and, as ſhe was going onboard of them, croſs a narrow plank, with admiral Fleming, his foot ſlipping, he fell, and drew the queen with him into the ſea, which in that place was near ninety feet deep. Anthony Steinberg, the queen's firſt equerry, inſtantly threw himſelf into the water, laid hold of her robe, and, with ſuch aſſiſtance as was given him, got the queen aſhore: during this accident, her recollection was ſuch, that the moment her lips were above water, ſhe cried, out, "Take care of the admiral." When ſhe was got out of the water, ſhe diſcovered no emotion either by her geſture or countenance; and ſhe dined the ſame day in public, where ſhe gave a humorous account of her adventure.

But, though at firſt ſhe was fond of the power and ſplendour of royalty, yet ſhe began at length to feel that it embarraſſed her; and the ſame love of independence and liberty which had determined her againſt marriage, at laſt made her weary of her crown. As, after her firſt diſguſt, it grew more and more irkſome to her, ſhe reſolved to abdicate; and, in 1652 communicated her reſolution to the ſenate. The ſenate zealouſly remonſtrated againſt it; and was joined by the people; and even by Charles Guſtavus himſelf, who was to ſucceed her: ſhe yielded to their importunities, and continued to ſacrifice her own pleaſure to the will of the public till the year 1654, and then ſhe carried her deſign into execution. It appears by one of her letters to M. Canut, in whom ſhe put great confidence, that ſhe had meditated this project for more than eight years; and, that ſhe had communicated it to him five years before it took place.

The ceremony of her abdication was a mournful ſolemnity, a mixture of pomp and ſadneſs, in which ſcarce any eyes but her own were dry. She continued firm and compoſed through the whole; and, as ſoon as it was over, prepared to remove into a country more favourable to ſcience than Sweden was. Concerning the merit of this action, the world has always been divided in opinion; it has been condemned alike both by the ignorant and the learned, the trifler and the ſage. It was admired, however, by the great Condé: "How great was the magnanimity of this princeſs (ſaid he), who could ſo eaſily give up that for which the reſt of

mankind are continually deſtroying each other, and which ſo many throughout their whole lives purſue without attaining!" It appears, by the works of St. Evremond, that the abdication of Chriſtina was at that time the univerſal topic of ſpeculation and debate in France. Chriſtina, beſides abdicating her crown, abjured her religion: but this act was univerſally approved by one party and cenſured by another; the Papiſts triumphed, and the Proteſtants were offended. No prince, after a long impriſonment, ever ſhewed ſo much joy upon being reſtored to his kingdom, as Chriſtina did in quitting hers. When ſhe came to a little brook, which ſeparates Sweden from Denmark, ſhe got out of her carriage; and, leaping on the other ſide, cried out in a tranſport of joy, "At laſt I am free, and out of Sweden, whither, I hope, I ſhall never return." She diſmiſſed her women, and laid by the habit of her ſex: "I would become a man (ſaid ſhe); yet I do not love men merely becauſe they are men, but becauſe they are not women." She made her abjuration at Bruſſels; where ſhe ſaw the great Condé, who, after his defection, made that city his aſylum. "Couſin (ſaid ſhe), who would have thought, ten years ago, that we ſhould have met at this diſtance from our countries?"

The inconſtancy of Chriſtina's temper appeared in her going continually from place to place: from Bruſſels ſhe went to Rome; from Rome to France, and from France ſhe returned to Rome again; after this ſhe went to Sweden, where ſhe was not very well received; from Sweden ſhe went to Hamburgh, where ſhe continued a year, and then went again to Rome; from Rome ſhe returned to Hamburgh; and again to Sweden, where ſhe was ſtill worſe received than before; upon which ſhe went back to Hamburgh, and from Hamburgh again to Rome. She intended another journey to Sweden; but it did not take place, any more than an expedition to England, where Cromwell did not ſeem well diſpoſed to receive her; and after many wanderings, and many purpoſes of wandering ſtill more, ſhe at laſt died at Rome in 1689.

It muſt be acknowledged, that her journeys to Sweden had a motive of neceſſity; for her appointments were very ill paid, though the ſtates often confirmed them after her abdication: but to other places ſhe was led merely by a roving diſpoſition; and, what is more to her diſcredit, ſhe always diſturbed the quiet of every place ſhe came into, by exacting greater deference to her rank as queen than ſhe had a right to expect, by her total non-conformity to the cuſtoms of the place, and by continually exciting and fomenting intrigues of ſtate. She was indeed always too buſy, even when ſhe was upon the throne; for there was no event in Europe in which ſhe was not ambitious of acting a principal part. During the troubles in France by the faction called the Fronde, ſhe wrote with great eagerneſs to all the intereſted parties, officiouſly offering her mediation to reconcile their intereſts, and calm their paſſions, the ſecret ſprings of which it was impoſſible ſhe ſhould know. This was firſt thought a dangerous, and afterwards a ridiculous, behaviour. During her reſidence in France ſhe gave univerſal diſguſt, not only by violating all the cuſtoms of the country, but by practiſing others directly oppoſite. She treated the ladies of the court with the greateſt rudeneſs and contempt: when they came to embrace her, ſhe, being in man's apparel, cried out, "What a ſtrange eagerneſs have theſe women to kiſs me! is it becauſe I look like a man?"

But though ſhe ridiculed the manners of the French court, ſhe was very ſolicitous to enter into its intrigues. Louis XIV. then very young, was enamoured of Mademoiſelle de Mancini, niece to cardinal Mazarine; Chriſtina flattered their paſſion, and offered her ſervice. "I would fain be your confidante (ſaid ſhe); if you love, you muſt marry."

The murder of Monaldeſchi is, to this hour, an inſcrutable myſtery. It is, however, of a piece with the expreſſions conſtantly uſed by Chriſtina in her letters, with reſpect to thoſe with whom ſhe was offended; for ſhe ſcarce ever ſignified her diſpleaſure without threatening the life of the offender. "If you fail in your duty, (ſaid ſhe

to her ſecretary, whom ſhe ſent to Stockholm after her abdication,) not all the power of the king of Sweden ſhall ſave your life, though you ſhould take ſhelter in his arms." A muſician having quitted her ſervice for that of the duke of Savoy, ſhe was ſo tranſported with rage as to diſgrace herſelf by theſe words, in a letter written with her own hand: "He lives only for me; and, if he does not ſing for me, he ſhall not ſing long for any body."

Bayle was alſo threatened for having ſaid that the letter which Chriſtina wrote, upon the revocation of the edict of Nantes, was "a remain of Proteſtantiſm;" but he made his peace by apologies and ſubmiſſion.

Upon the whole, ſhe appears to have been an uncommon mixture of faults and great qualities; which, however it might excite fear and reſpect, was by no means amiable. She had wit, taſte, parts, and learning; ſhe was indefatigable upon the throne; great in private life; firm in misfortunes; impatient of contradiction; and, except in her love of letters, inconſtant in her inclinations. The moſt remarkable inſtance of this fickleneſs is, That, after ſhe had abdicated the crown of Sweden, ſhe intrigued for that of Poland. She was, in every action and purſuit, violent and ardent in the higheſt degree; impetuous in her deſires, dreadful in her reſentment, and fickle in her conduct

She ſays of herſelf, that "ſhe was miſtruſtful, ambitious, paſſionate, haughty, impatient, contemptuous, ſatyrical, incredulous, undevout, of an ardent and violent temper, and extremely amorous. In general, her failings were thoſe of her ſex, and her virtues the virtues of ours.

ANTIDOTE AGAINST FRENCH POLITICS.

THE perfidious and bloody-minded diſpoſition of the French nation, in its political capacity, has, in a thouſand inſtances, been manifeſted to the world; but the moſt atrocious example of this kind upon record is that called the Pariſian Maſſacre of St. Bartholomew's day, which was carried on with ſuch deteſtable ferocity, and ſuch a bloody cruelty, as would ſurpaſs all belief, were it not atteſted by the moſt undeniable evidence. In the year 1572, in the reign of Charles IX. many of the principal proteſtants were invited to Paris, under a ſolemn oath of ſafety, upon occaſion of the marriage of the king of Navarre with the French king's ſiſter, viz. the king of Navarre's mother, Coligni admiral of France, with other nobles. The queen-dowager of Navarre, a zealous proteſtant, was poiſoned by a pair of gloves before the marriage was ſolemnized; and, on the 24th of Auguſt 1572, being St. Bartholomew's day, about day-break, upon the toll of the bell of the church of St. Germain, the butchery began. The admiral was baſely murdered in his own houſe; and then thrown out of the window, to gratify the malice of the duke of Guiſe: his head was afterwards cut off, and ſent to the king and queen-mother; and his body, after a thouſand indignities offered to it, hung up by the feet on a gibbet. After this, the murderers ravaged the whole city of Paris, and butchered in three days above ten thouſand lords, gentlemen, preſidents, and people of all ranks. An horrible ſcene of things, ſays Thuanus, when the very ſtreets and paſſages reſounded with the noiſe of thoſe that met together for murder and plunder; the groans of thoſe who were dying, and the ſhrieks of ſuch as were juſt going to be butchered, were every where heard; the bodies of the ſlain thrown out of the windows; the courts and chambers of the houſes filled with them; the dead bodies of others dragged through the ſtreets, their blood running down the channels in ſuch plenty, that torrents ſeemed to empty themſelves in the neighbouring river; and, in a word, an innumerable multitude of men, women with child, maidens, and children, were all involved in one common deſtruction; and the gates and entrances of the king's palace all beſmeared with their blood.

From the city of Paris the maſſacre ſpread almoſt throughout the whole kingdom. In the city of Meaux they threw above two hundred into gaol; and

and after they had raviſhed and killed a great number of women, and plundered the houſes of the proteſtants, they executed their fury on thoſe they had impriſoned, and, calling them out one by one, they were killed, as Thuanus expreſſes it, like ſheep in a market; the bodies of ſome were flung into ditches, and of others into the river Maine. In Orleans they murdered above five hundred men, women, and children, and enriched themſelves with their ſpoil. The ſame cruelties were practiſed at Angers, Troyes, Bourges, La Charité, and eſpecially at Lyons, where they inhumanly deſtroyed above eight hundred proteſtants; children hanging on their mothers necks; parents embracing their children; putting ropes about the necks of ſome, dragging them through the ſtreets, and throwing them, mangled, torn, and half dead, into the river.

It would be endleſs to mention the butcheries committed at Valence, Romaine, Rouen, &c. We ſhall, therefore, only add, that, according to Thuanus, above thirty thouſand proteſtants were deſtroyed in this maſſacre, or, as others with greater probability affirm, above one hundred thouſand.

Thuanus himſelf calls this a moſt deteſtable villainy; and, in abhorrence of St. Bartholomew's day, uſed to repeat theſe words of P. Statius, Silv. v. iii. ver. 88, &c.

Excidat illa dies ævo, ne poſtera credant
Sæcula. Nos certe taceamus, et obruta multa
Nocte tegi propriæ patiamus crimina gentis

In the words of Job, chap. iii. ver. 3. &c. "Let that day periſh: and let it not be joined unto the days of the year. Let darkneſs and the ſhadow of death ſtain it," &c. And yet, as though this had been the moſt heroic tranſaction, and could have procured immortal glory to the authors of it, medals were ſtruck at Paris in honour of it.

But how was the news of this butchery received at Rome, that faithful city, that holy mother of churches! How did the vicar of Chriſt, the ſucceſſor of Peter, and the father of the Chriſtian world, reliſh it? Let Thuanus tell the horrid truth. When the news, ſays he, came to Rome, it was wonderful to ſee how they exulted for joy. On the 6th of September, when the letters of the pope's legate were read in the aſſembly of the cardinals, by which he aſſured the pope that all was tranſacted by the expreſs will and command of the king, it was immediately decreed that the pope ſhould march with his cardinals to the church of St. Mark, and in the moſt ſolemn manner give thanks to God for ſo great a bleſſing conferred on the ſee of Rome and the Chriſtian world; and that, on the Monday after, ſolemn maſs ſhould be celebrated in the church of Minerva; at which the pope, Gregory XIII. and cardinals, were preſent; and that a jubilee ſhould be publiſhed throughout the whole Chriſtian world, and the cauſe of it declared to be, to return thanks to God for the extirpation of the enemies of the truth and church in France. In the evening the cannon of St. Angelo were fired, to teſtify the public joy; the whole city illuminated with bonfires; and no one ſign of rejoicing omitted that was uſually made for the greateſt victories obtained in favour of the Roman church.

After ſuch examples of ſavage barbarity, of treachery, and unchriſtian perſecution, can the ſons and daughters of Engliſhmen, with their eyes open, and their ſenſes wide awake, encourage for a moment the perfidious ſyſtem of French politics, or the perſecuting ſpirit of the church of Rome!

REMARKABLE ESCAPE OF CAPTAIN COOK FROM SHIPWRECK.

DURING Captain Cook's voyage round New Holland, the coaſts of which are full of dangerous rocks and ſhoals, his ſhip was brought into ſuch a perilous ſituation, and from which the eſcape was ſo extraordinary, that it deſerves a particular relation. This happened on the 10th of June 1770, as they purſued their courſe from Trinity Bay, and nearly in the latitude aſſigned to the iſlands diſcovered by Quiros. At that time they

they had the advantage of a fine breeze and a clear moonlight; and, in ſtanding off from ſix till near nine o'clock, the ſhip had deepened her water from fourteen to twenty-one fathoms; but, while the navigators were at ſupper, it ſuddenly ſhoaled to twelve, ten, and eight, fathoms in the ſpace of a few minutes. Every thing was then ready for putting the ſhip about, when they ſuddenly got into deep water again, and continued in twenty and twenty-one fathoms for ſome time, ſo that the gentlemen went to bed in perfect ſecurity. A little before eleven, however, the water ſhoaled at once from twenty to ſeventeen fathoms; and before the lead could be heaved again, the ſhip ſtruck, and remained immoveable, excepting as far as ſhe was heaved up and down, and daſhed againſt the rocks by the ſurge. The alarm was now univerſal, and not indeed without the greateſt reaſon. It appeared that the veſſel had been lifted over the ledge of a rock, and lay in a hollow within it, where there were in ſome places from three to four fathoms water, and in others ſcarcely as many feet: the ſheathing boards were diſjointed, and floating round the ſhip in great numbers; and at laſt the falſe keel alſo was deſtroyed, while the rock kept grating her bottom with ſuch force as to be heard in the fore ſtore-room. It was now neceſſary to lighten the ſhip as much as poſſible; and this was done with all expedition to the amount of more than fifty tons. In the morning of the 11th of June they diſcovered the land at about eight leagues diſtance, without any iſland between, on which they could have been ſent aſhore in the event of the ſhip going to pieces, that ſo they might have been carried to the main land by turns. To add to their diſtreſs, the ſhip drew ſo much water, that it could ſcarcely be kept under by three pumps. Laſtly, it appeared, that even the riſing of the tide, on which they had ultimately depended for relief, was inſufficient to anſwer the purpoſe, as the day-tide fell conſiderably ſhort of that in the night-time. Having therefore lightened the ſhip ſtill farther, by throwing out every thing that could poſſibly be ſpared, they waited with patience for the next tide; when, after incredible exertion, the ſhip righted, and they got her over the ledge of the rock into deep water. By continual labour, however, the men were at laſt ſo much exhauſted, that they could not ſtand to the pumps more than five or ſix minutes at a time; after which they threw themſelves flat on the deck, tho' a ſtream of water between three and four inches deep ran over it; and in this ſituation they lay till others, exhauſted as well as themſelves, took their places, on which they ſtarted up again, and renewed their exertions. In this dreadful extremity, Mr. Monkhouſe, a midſhipman, propoſed the expedient of fothering the ſhip, as it is called, by which means he ſaid that he had ſeen a merchant-ſhip brought from Virginia to London after ſhe had ſprung a leak that admitted more than four feet water in an hour. The expedient being approved of, it was put in execution in the following manner:—He took a lower ſtudding-ſail, and, having mixed a large quantity of oakum and wool together, ſtitched them down by handfuls as lightly as poſſible; the whole being afterwards ſpread over with the dung of the ſheep and other filth. The ſail was then hauled under the ſhip's bottom by means of ropes which kept it extended. When it came under the leak, the wool and oakum, with part of the ſail, were forced inwards by the preſſure of the water, which thus prevented its own ingreſs in ſuch an effectual manner, that one pump, inſtead of three, was now ſufficient to keep it under. Thus they got the ſhip into a convenient port on the coaſt of New Holland, where there was an opportunity of fully repairing her defects. Here they diſcovered that their preſervation had not been owing entirely to the expedient above-mentioned; for one of the holes was in a great meaſure filled up by a piece of rock which had broken off and ſtuck in it; and this hole was ſo large, that, had it not been filled up in the manner juſt mentioned, they muſt undoubtedly have periſhed, notwithſtanding all the aſſiſtance that could have been derived from the pumps.

From

From the time they quitted the coaſt of New Holland till their arrival at Batavia in the iſland of Java, our navigators met with no other danger but what is common in ſea-voyages. They were obliged to ſtay for ſome time at this place to repair their damages; and, on viewing the condition of the ſhip, found they had more reaſon than ever to admire the manner in which they had been preſerved; and which, we truſt, on ſimilar occaſions, will be adopted with the ſame happy ſucceſs.

THE BENEVOLENT SAILOR.

A FEW mornings ago, (I remember it was a rainy one,) as I was walking along one of the back ſtreets of the metropolis, I was very much ſtruck with a melancholy figure of a blind man, who was ſinging a ſong of love. Miſery could not have found, among the numbers of diſtreſſed mortals, a form more ſuited to her nature. While I was contemplating the wretchedneſs of the object, and comparing it with the ſtrain which neceſſity compelled him to chaunt, a ſailor, who came whiſtling along the ſtreet, with a ſtick under his arm, ſtopped and purchaſed a ballad of him. "God preſerve you, cried the blind man, for I have not taſted bread this bleſſed day;" when the ſailor, looking around him, on a ſudden ſprung up four ſteps into a baker's ſhop, near which he ſtood; and, returning immediately, thruſt a ſmall loaf, ſilently, into the poor man's hand, and went off whiſtling as he came.

I was much affected with the noble act of the generous tar; and a gentleman paſſing by and witneſſing the ſcene, called the honeſt ſeaman back, and, taking the little ſilver he had about him, which I think was but four ſhillings, ſaid, "Thy nobleneſs of ſoul, and the goodneſs of thy heart, my lad, which I have ſeen ſo bright an inſtance of, makes me ſorry that I cannot reward thee as thou doſt deſerve; however, I muſt beg your acceptance of this trifle, as a ſmall teſtimony how much I admire thy generous nature." "God bleſs your noble honour, ſaid the ſailor, and thank you; but we will divide the prize-money fairly:" ſo, ſtepping back to the blind man, he gave him half of it; and, clapping him upon the ſhoulder at the ſame time, he added withal, "Here are two ſhillings for thee, my blind Cupid, for which you are not obliged to me, but to a noble gentleman who ſtands within five yards of you; ſo get into harbour and make thyſelf warm, and keep thy humſtrum for fairer weather." Then giving his hat a quick wave over his head, he thanked me again, and went nimbly down the ſtreet.

DESCRIPTION OF AN ANCIENT SEA-FIGHT.

IN the year 1453, an engagement took place between Richard earl of Warwick, and two large French carracks. The copper-plate exactly deſcribes the action, in which the arms of the earl are quartered on the ſail; the ſtreamer is alſo ornamented with his badge, the bear and ragged ſtaff: the ſpace between the forecaſtle and cabin, at the ſtern, is filled with Engliſh archers. The French, likewiſe, have their croſs-bow-men. In the galleries, on the tops of the maſts, are men appointed to caſt down darts and ſtones upon the enemy below. On the forecaſtle of Warwick's ſhip, is an archer aiming at the man, who appears in the gallery, on the maſt of the oppoſite ſhip, whilſt the other, with a ſtone in his hands, is transfixed with an arrow. On the forecaſtle of the front carrack, is a man at arms, with his ſpear and ſhield, ready to ſtrike at the archers in the earl's veſſel. The cannons are pointed over the ſide of the ſhip, but do not appear to be of uſe in the cloſe battle.—As a repreſentation of this action may ſtill farther explain the naval architecture and operations of the times, a further account of it will be given in the annexed Hiſtory of the Wars of England.

[The elegant Plate, repreſenting the DEATH of RICHARD I. king of ENGLAND, ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, is to be placed oppoſite p. 232 of the annexed Hiſtory of the Wars of England, where an account of that fatal event is given.]

POETRY.

POETRY.

POOR PEG.

From Dibdin's "Private Theatricals."

POOR Peggy lov'd a ſoldier lad,
More, far more, than tongue can tell you;
Yet was her tender boſom ſad
Whene'er ſhe heard the loud reveillez.
The fifes were ſcreech-owls to her ears;
The drums like thunder ſeem'd to rattle.
Ah! too prophetic were her fears;
They call'd him from her arms to battle.
There wonders he againſt the foe
Perform'd, and was with honour crown'd:
Vain pomp! for ſoon death laid him low
On the cold ground.

Her heart all love, her ſoul all truth,
That none her fears or flight diſcover,
Poor Peg, in guiſe a comely youth,
Follow'd to the field her lover;
Directed by the fife and drum
To where the work of death was doing;
Where of brave hearts the time was come,
Who, ſeeking honour, graſp at ruin.—
Her very ſoul was chill'd with woe;
New horror came with ev'ry ſound,
And whiſper'd death had laid him low
On the cold ground.

With mute affliction as ſhe ſtood,
And while her woman's fears confound her,
(With terror all her ſoul ſubdu'd,)
A mourning train came thronging round her.
The plaintive fife and muffled drum
The martial obſequies diſcover:
His name ſhe heard, and cry'd, "I come,
Faithful to meet my murder'd lover:"
Then, heart-rent by a ſigh of woe,
Fell, to the grief of all around,
Where death had laid her lover low
On the cold ground.

The SOLDIER's FUNERAL.

From Dibdin's "Caſtles in the Air."

THE martial pomp, the mournful train,
Beſpeak ſome honour'd hero ſlain;
The obſequies denote him brave,
Hark, the volley o'er his grave;
The awful knell ſounds low and lorn:
Yet ceaſe, ye kindred brave, to mourn.
The plaintive fife and muffled drum
The man may ſummon to his ſilent home:
The ſoldier lives his deeds to trace;—
Behold the ſeraph glory trace
An ever-living laurel round his ſacred tomb.
Nor deem it hard, ye thoughtleſs gay:—
Short's man's longeſt earthly ſtay.
Our little hour of life we try,
And then depart—man's born to die.
Then loſe no moment dear to fame;
They longeſt live who live in name.
The plaintive fife, &c.

TOM TACKLE.

From the ſame.

TOM TACKLE was noble, was true to his word;
If merit bought titles Tom might be my lord.
How gaily his bark through life's ocean would ſail!
Truth furniſh'd the rigging, and honour the gale.
Yet Tom had a failing, if ever man had,
That, good as he was, made him all that was bad:
He was paltry and pitiful, ſcurvy and mean,
And the ſniv'lingeſt ſcoundrel that ever was ſeen;
For ſo ſaid the girls and the landlords long ſcore:
Would you know what this fault was—
Tom Tackle was poor.

'Twas once on a time when we took a galleon,
And the crew touch'd the agent for caſh to ſome tune,
Tom a trip took to jail an old meſſmate to free,
And four thankful prattlers ſoon ſat on his knee,
Then Tom was an angel downright from heav'n ſent;—
While they'd hands he his goodneſs ſhould never repent.
Return'd from next voyage, he bemoan'd his ſad caſe,
To find his dear friend ſhut the door in his face.
D'ye wonder? cry'd one; you're ſerv'd right, to be ſure:
Once Tom Tackle was rich—now Tom Tackle is poor.

I ben't, you ſoe, vers'd in high maxims and ſitch,
But don't this ſame honour concern poor and rich?
If it don't come from good hearts I can't ſee where from;
And, damme, if e'er tar had a good heart, 'twas Tom.
Yet, ſome how or other, Tom never did right:—
None knew better the time when to ſpare or to fight;

He by finding a leak once preſerv'd crew and ſhip,
Sav'd the commodore's life—then he made ſuch rare flip!
And yet, for all this, no one Tom could endure:—
I fancys as how 'twas—becauſe he was poor.

At laſt an old ſhipmate, that Tom might hail land,
Who ſaw that his heart fail'd too faſt for his hand,
In the riding of comfort a mooring to find,
Reef'd the ſails of Tom's fortune that ſhook in the wind;
He gave him enough through life's ocean to ſteer,
Be the breeze what it might—ſteady, thus, or no near.
His pittance is daily; and yet Tom imparts
What he can to his friends:—and may all honeſt hearts,
Like Tom Tackle, have what keeps the wolf from the door;
Juſt enough to be gen'rous—too much to be poor.

HUMAN UNDERSTANDING.

SAGE Locke! thy ſpirit I invoke,
Great ſearcher of the human mind;
The laſt beſt oracle that ſpoke
Reaſon and truth to all mankind.

Teach me to underſtand the laws
Which form, and keep in juſt controul,
(Directed by the Firſt Great Cauſe,)
The body's union with the ſoul.

Through nature's complicated frame,
Tell, how the thrilling nerves convey
Perception's animating flame,
To light the tenement of clay:

How the five miniſters of ſenſe,
With pow'r diſtinct, and ſep'rate train,
Approach the mind's high reſidence
Within the fortreſs of the brain:

How, when the leaſt alarm they feel,
They give quick notice to the throne,
And to the judgment-ſeat appeal,
Each by an influence of his own:

The touch that, tremblingly awake,
Pervades and agitates the whole;
The ear ſends eloquence to ſhake,
And harmony to ſooth, the ſoul.

Viſion, great commanding power,
Beauty preſents, and grace diſplays;
Smell incenſe draws from ev'ry flower;
Taſte its delicious homage pays.

As from far-diſtant mountains' ſides
Rivers deſcend, and through the plain
Winding their way, with different tides
All ruſh into the mighty main;

Old Thames, deriv'd from pureſt ſpring,
To rule the commerce of the ſea,
Views, as he flows, a patriot king,
A happy realm, a people free:

The once obſequious courtly Seine,
Mournful and ſullen, paſſes by
The walls, where wildeſt factions reign,
And hold their pow'r by anarchy:

The Viſtula indignant runs,
Her foaming cataracts, as they fall,
Deplore the fate of Poland's ſons,
And loud on heav'n for juſtice call:

From regions near the riſing day,
Ganges, no longer Indian, rolls:
Proud of Cornwallis, and the ſway
Of Britiſh laws, of Britiſh ſouls:

The ſov'reign, who the trident bears,
Receives them all with gracious mien;
Each tribute takes, each murmur hears,
Reclin'd in majeſty ſerene;

So the ideas, from their ſource,
By different ways and channels, find
The deſtin'd object of their courſe,
The great ſenſorium of the mind.

On QUADRILLE.

DEIGN, lovely nymph, to hear the leaſt of bards,
Who draws inſtruction from a game of cards:
What, tho' quadrille perplex you, here is ſhewn,
How hard the taſk for her who plays alone.
But, would you then conſent to be a wife?
Think firſt, oh think! you play your cards for life!
Shou'd fordid friends controul your right good will,
Beware the wretched ſtate of forc'd ſpadille.
Shou'd man, by grandeur, ſtrive your heart to fire,
A croſs fiſh well denotes a purſe-proud 'ſquire.
Then paſs by wealth and power, for better, ſure,
It is, with ſome kind ſwain, to play ſecure;
And he, dear girl, who does your charms adore,
Now aſks your leave; oh! let him ſoon ſay more.

The LAWYER and CLIENT.

TWO lawyers, when a knotty cauſe was o'er,
Shook hands, and were as good friends as before.
"Zounds! ſays the client, How come ye aw
To be ſuch friends, who were ſuch foes juſt naw?"
Thou fool, ſays one, we lawyers, tho' ſo keen,
Like ſhears, ne'er cut ourſelves, but what's between.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

ESCAPE of the JUNO.

From the LONDON GAZETTE.

ADMIRALTY OFFICE, *Feb.* 18.

A LETTER, of which the following is a copy, from the Right Hon. Lord Hood, vice-admiral of the red, and commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips in the Mediterranean, was this day received at this office.

SIR, VICTORY, *Hieres Bay, Jan.* 22.

I herewith have the honour to tranſmit to you, for the information of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, a narrative of the fortunate preſervation of his majeſty's ſhip Juno, owing to the great preſence of mind and zealous exertion of Captain Hood, his officers and ſhip's company. HOOD.

Juno, Hieres Bay, Jan. 13, 1794.

On the 3d inſtant, I left the iſland of Malta, having on-board one hundred and fifty ſupernumeraries, forty-ſix of whom are the officers and private marines of his majeſty's ſhip Romney, the remainder Malteſe, intended for the fleet. On the night of the 7th paſſed the S. W. point of Sardinia, and ſteered a courſe for Toulon. On the 9th, about eleven A. M. made Cape Sicie, but found a current had ſet us ſome leagues to the weſtward of our expectation: hauled our wind; but it blowing hard from the eaſtward, with a ſtrong lee current, we could but juſt fetch to the weſtward of the above Cape. The wind and current continuing, we could not, till the evening of the 11th, get as far to windward as Cape Sepet. Having that evening, a little before ten o'clock, found the ſhip would be able to fetch into Toulon if I wiſhed it, I did not like to wait till morning, as we had been thrown to leeward, and, having ſo many men on board, I thought it my indiſpenſable duty to get in as faſt as poſſible. At ten I ordered the hands to be turned up to bring the ſhip to anchor, being then abreſt of Cape Sepet, entering the outer harbour. Not having a pilot on-board, or any perſon acquainted with the port, I placed two midſhipmen to look out with night-glaſſes for the fleet; but, not diſcovering any ſhips until we got near the entrance of the inner harbour, I ſuppoſed they had moored up there in the eaſtern gale: at the ſame time ſeeing one veſſel, with ſeveral other lights, which I imagined to be the fleets, I entered the inner harbour under the topſails only; but, finding I could not weather a brig which lay a little way above the point called the Grand Tour, I ordered the foreſail and driver to be ſet to be ready to tack when we were on the other ſide the brig. Soon after the brig hailed us, but I could not make out in what language: I ſuppoſed they wanted to know what ſhip it was. I told them it was an Engliſh frigate called the Juno. They anſwered, *Viva*; and after aſking in Engliſh and French, for ſome time, what brig ſhe was, and where the Britiſh admiral lay, they appeared not to underſtand me, but called out, as we paſſed under their ſtern, *luff*, which made me ſuppoſe there was ſhoal water near. The helm was immediately put a-lee, but we found the ſhip was onſhore before ſhe got head to wind. There being very little wind, and perfectly ſmooth, I ordered the ſails to be clewed up and handed: at this time a boat went from the brig towards the town. Before the people were all off the yards, we found the ſhip went a-ſtern very faſt by a flaw of wind that came down the harbour: we hoiſted the driver and mizen ſtay-ſail, keeping the ſheets to windward to give her ſtern way as long as poſſible that ſhe might get further from the ſhoal. The inſtant ſhe loſt her way we let go the beſt-bower anchor, when ſhe tended head to wind, the after-part of her keel was aground, and we could move the rudder. I ordered the launch and cutter to be hoiſted out, and put the ketch-anchor, with two hawſers in them, to warp the ſhip further off. By the time the boats were out, a boat came along-ſide, after having been hailed, and we thought anſwered as if an officer had been in her; the people were all anxious to get out of her, two of which appeared to be officers: one of them ſaid, he came to inform me, it was the regulation of the port, and the commanding officer's orders, that I muſt go into another branch of the harbour, to perform ten days quarantine. I kept aſking him where Lord Hood's ſhip lay; but his not giving me any ſatisfactory anſwer, and one of the midſhipmen having at the ſame inſtant ſaid, "They wear national cockades," I looked at one of their hats more ſtedfaſtly, and, by the moonlight, clearly diſtinguiſhed the three colours. Perceiving they were ſuſpected, and, on my queſtioning them again about Lord Hood, one of them replied, "Soyez tranquille, les Anglois ſont de braves gens, nous les traitons bien; l'Amiral Anglois eſt ſorti

il y a quelque tems." It may be more eaſily conceived than any words can expreſs what I felt at the moment. The circumſtance of our ſituation, of courſe, was known throughout the ſhip in an inſtant; and, ſaying we were all priſoners, the officers ſoon got near me to know our ſituation. At the ſame inſtant a ſlaw of wind coming down the harbour, Lieut. Webly, the third lieutenant of the ſhip ſaid to me, "I believe ſir, we ſhall be able to fetch out, if we can get her under ſail." I immediately perceived we ſhould have a chance of ſaving the ſhip; at leaſt, if we did not, we ought not to loſe his majeſty's ſhip without ſome contention. I ordered every perſon to their reſpective ſtations, and the Frenchmen to be ſent below: they perceiving ſome buſtle, two or three of them began to draw their ſabres; on which I ordered ſome of the marines to take the half-pikes, and force them below, which was ſoon done. I then ordered all the Malteſe between decks, that we might not have confuſion with too many men. I believe in an inſtant ſuch a change in people was never ſeen: every officer and man was at his duty, and I do believe, within three minutes, every ſail was ſet, and the yards braced ready for caſting. The ſteady and active aſſiſtance of Lieutenant Turner and all the officers prevented any confuſion from ariſing in our critical ſituation. As ſoon as the cable was tort, I ordered it to be cut, and had the good fortune to ſee the ſhip ſtart from the ſhore; the head-ſails were filled: a favourable ſlaw of wind coming at the ſame time, got good way on her, and we had then every proſpect of getting out, if the forts did not diſable us. To prevent our being retarded by the boats, I ordered them to be cut adrift, as alſo the French boat. The moment the brig ſaw us begin to looſe ſails, we could plainly perceive ſhe was getting her guns ready, and we alſo ſaw lights on all the batteries. When we had ſhot far enough for the brig's guns to bear on us, which was not more than three ſhips lengths, ſhe began to fire, alſo a fort a little on the ſtarboard bow, and ſoon after all of them on both ſides, as they could bring their guns to bear. As ſoon as the ſails were well brimmed, I beat to quarters to get our guns ready, but not with an intention of firing till we were ſure of getting out. When we got abreaſt of the center part of the land of Cape Sepet, I was afraid we ſhould have been obliged to make a tack; but as we drew near the ſhore, and were ready, ſhe came up two points, and juſt weathered the Cape. As we paſſed very cloſe along that ſhore, the batteries kept up as briſk a fire as the wetneſs of the weather would admit. When I could afford to keep the ſhip a little from the wind, I ordered ſome guns to be fired at a battery that had juſt opened abreaſt of us, which quieted them a little. We then ſtopped firing till we could keep her away, with the wind abaft the beam, when, for a few minutes, we kept up a very briſk fire on the laſt battery we had to paſs, and which I believe muſt otherwiſe have done us much damage. At half paſt twelve, being out of reach of their ſhot, the firing ceaſed: fortunately we had no perſon hurt. Some ſhot paſſed through the ſails, part of the ſtanding and running rigging ſhot away, and two thirty-ſix pound ſhot that ſtruck the hull, was all the damage we received.

SAM. HOOD.

WHITEHALL, *March* 11.

Diſpatches, of which the following are the copies, were yeſterday received at the Office of the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, his Majeſty's principal Secretary of State for the Home Department, from Vice-admiral Lord Hood and Lieutenant-general David Dundas.

SIR, VICTORY, *St. Florenzo, Feb.* 22.

Having received repeated information how much the French were ſtraightened for proviſions in Corſica, I had, for a conſiderable time paſt, kept ſhips conſtantly cruiſing between Cape Corſe and Calvi, and, after my leaving the road of Toulon, I judged it more neceſſary to prevent ſuccours from being thrown in as much as poſſible, my mind being impreſſed with the importance the iſland muſt be of to the French, in the ſtate the ſhips and arſenal of Toulon were, and that it was very much ſo to Great Britain, as it contained ſeveral ports, and that of St. Florenzo a very good one, for the reception of his majeſty's fleet in this part of the Mediterranean. I therefore determined to make an attempt to drive the French out of it, ſo ſoon as I could get a ſufficient ſupply of proviſions and wine, being in daily expectation of the former from Gibraltar, and the latter from Port Mahon and Alicant; and in the mean time I ſignified to General Dundas my intention of ſending Lieutenant-colonel Moore and Major Koehler to Corſica, and requeſted he would give them proper inſtructions for informing themſelves of General Paoli's real ſituation and that of the French; and, after they had been there a week, I received, in the afternoon of the 23d of laſt month, a very encouraging report, and at the ſame time certain information that the French had actually embarked

embarked at Nice 8000 troops, which were, at all riſque, to puſh for the iſland, under convoy of two frigates, a corvette, zebeck, and other armed veſſels. That ſame evening I detached three more frigates to the ſenior officer, the more effectually to line the coaſt, and to guard Baſtia alſo; at the ſame time I ordered the Ardent and a ſloop off Villa Franca, and, in caſe he found the French frigates there, Captain Sutton was directed to call to him the Diadem and other cruizers from before Genoa, and cruize from Villa Franca to Antibes; but, if he found the French frigates ſailed, he was to proceed, and join me off St. Florenzo, as I intended to put to ſea the next morning. I could not, however, get away until the afternoon for want of wind. At four o'clock I weighed anchor, accompanied by ſixty ſail of ſhips and veſſels, including army-victuallers, horſe-tranſports, and others, having 1800 unfortunate Toulonefe on-board, and the Victory and Princeſs Royal had 400 more. I gave the convoy in charge of the Gorgon, with three gun-boats to bring up the rear. Juſt at ſun-ſet next evening I was within three miles of the Iſle of Rouſſa, where Lieutenant-colonel Moore was waiting, but, having no frigate or cutter with me, I was unable to ſend for him; but, obſerving the Juno at ſome little diſtance, I made her captain's ſignal, and directed him to ſtand in, and fetch the colonel off in the night, which he fortunately effected. Towards day-light it blew very ſtrong, and before ten o'clock quite a ſtorm, which made it prudent for me to bear up for Porto Ferrara, which I had a fair proſpect of getting to before night; but in the afternoon, when we were within five leagues of Elba, the weather was ſo extremely thick, that the pilot declined the charge of the ſhip; conſequently I was driven to leeward of the iſland, where I paſſed three very diſagreeable nights, having had two main topſails blown to rags, and the topſail-yard rendered totally unſerviceable. However, we got ſafe to Porto Ferrara on the 29th; and having got all the ſhips ſet to rights, and ſent for bread and wine from Leghorn, I put to ſea again on the 6th inſt. Commodore Linzee, with moſt of the tranſports, got out the evening before. On the 7th the commodore, having the direction of diſembarking the troops at the time and in the manner Lieutenant-general Dundas ſhould deſire, anchored in a bay to the weſtward of Mortella Point, with the ſeveral ſhips and tranſports under his command. The troops were moſtly landed that evening, and poſſeſſion taken of a height which overlooks the tower of Mortella. The next day, the general and commodore being of opinion that it was adviſeable to attack the tower from the bay, the Fortitude and Juno were ordered againſt it, without making the leaſt impreſſion by a continued cannonade of two hours and a half; and, the former ſhip being very much damaged by red-hot ſhot, both hauled off. The walls of the tower were of a prodigious thickneſs, and the parapet, where there were two eighteen-pounders, was lined with baſs junk five feet from the walls, and filled up with ſand; and, although it was cannonaded from the height for two days, within 150 yards, and appeared in a very ſhattered ſtate, the enemy ſtill held out; but a few hot ſhot ſetting fire to the baſs, made them call for quarter: the number of men in the tower were thirty-three; only two were wounded, and thoſe mortally.

On the 11th I was again forced from the gulph by a ſtrong weſterly gale, and took ſhelter under Cape Corſe; and, upon the wind abating, it fell at once calm, which prevented my return off St. Florenzo until the morning of the 17th. At nine that evening the enemy's works were ſtormed and taken, with inconſiderable loſs on the part of his majeſty, but the French ſuffered very much; and on the 19th in the evening the empty town of Florenzo was taken poſſeſſion of, the whole of the garriſon having gone off towards Baſtia in the two preceding days.

The cool and intrepid conduct of Capt. Young cannot be too much admired, or that of Capt. Woodley of the Alcide, who, from having a correct knowledge of the bay, nobly offered his ſervice to place the Fortitude, which he did with the greateſt judgement; and the teſtimony Captain Young bears of it makes it unneceſſary for me to ſay a word in his praiſe.

I ſhould be wanting in gratitude as well as juſtice to Lieutenant-colonel Moore and Major Koehler were I to omit acquainting you how much I feel myſelf indebted for their very great zeal and exertion in informing themſelves of the ſtate of the country in the neighbourhood of Fornelli, and cannot help attributing much to both for our ſucceſs. With reſpect to their conduct in the field, I leave Lieutenant-general Dundas to ſpeak of it, but I underſtand it was highly meritorious, as was that of the whole of the troops. Captain Woodley will be the bearer of this letter, to whom beg to refer you for ſuch particulars as you wiſh to be informed of, as he is perfectly well acquainted with every tranſaction from the landing of the troops to this hour. I have the honour to be, &c. HOOD.

Right Hon. Henry Dundas.

SIR,

SIR, *St. Florenzo, Feb.* 21.

I had the honour of informing you from Porta Ferrara, on the 4th inſt. of our intention to ſail for the Gulph of St. Florenzo in Corſica.

The diſlodging of the French from Baſtia, St. Florenzo, and Calvi, the three principal poſts they held in Corſica, and the attaining of ſo ſecure an harbour as St. Florenzo for our own fleet, appeared ſo important an object, that though our military force was but ſmall, deficient in many of the moſt eſſential points of equipment, and the ſeaſon of the year was far from encouraging, I was induced to acquieſce in any attempt that ſhould appear to promiſe the moſt diſtant hopes of ſucceſs. Two intelligent and experienced officers were ſent to confer with General Paoli, to examine local ſituations, and to report on the whole of circumſtances, which they did favourably. The fleet, therefore, ſailed from the bay of Hieres, where we had lain ſince the 19th of December, on the 24th of January, and proceeded towards St. Florenzo; but, the following day, a very violent gale of wind, which laſted for three days, diſperſed and endangered the fleet, and obliged us with great difficulty to gain Porto Ferrara, in the river Elba, where we remained ſome days making preparation.

On the 5th of February, we again ſailed; but, as the three-decked ſhips were not ſo well qualified for theſe narrow ſeas and dangerous coaſts at this ſeaſon of the year, Commodore Linzee, with three ſhips of the line and two frigates, was detached with the troops in tranſports, and on the 7th inſt. in the morning we anchored in an open and expoſed bay adjoining to that of Mortella, which we wiſhed to occupy, as it affords the beſt anchorage in the Gulph of Florenzo. The ſame evening the troops were landed, conſiſting of the ſecond battalion of royals, 11th, 25th, 30th, 50th, 51ſt, and 69th, regiments, amounting to about 1400 men bearing arms. As the enemy, beſide the town of Florenzo, poſſeſſed ſeveral heights and points, in order to command the anchorage of the weſt ſide of the gulph, it was neceſſary to diſlodge them, before the ſquadron could anchor in ſecurity; and theſe points in ſucceſſion, on entering the gulph, were the Tower of Mortella, the redoubt and batteries of the Convention, and the Tower of Fornelli, with two conſiderable ſea-batteries dependent upon it.

Expecting little oppoſition from Mortella Tower, and truſting, from intelligence, that we could approach near enough to that of Fornelli to attack it with light artillery, Lieutenant-colonel Moore was detached on the 8th with the royal and 51ſt regiments, a ſmall howitzer and a ſix-pounder, to effect this purpoſe; but after a march of ſeven or eight miles, through a rocky, deſert, and mountainous, country, deſtitute of roads, and where the artillery was carried by a detachment of ſailors under Capt. Cook, he arrived on the heights immediately above Fornelli, and then found that the diſtance was too great to hope for any effect from his ſmall guns. The ſame day we began from a commanding height, within 150 yards, to batter the tower of Mortella; but it was not till the 10th, after the attack made by the Fortitude and Juno, and after eſtabliſhing an eighteen-pounder, two nine-pounders, and a carronade, againſt it, that we were enabled to reduce it, and take an officer and thirty-two men priſoners.

During this time, having been enabled to examine the mountains that ſkirted the weſtern part of the Gulph, and which overlooked the enemy's poſts, (particularly the principal one, the redoubt of the Convention, which originally was, and by us was expected to be found, an open battery, but which, by indefatigable labour, they had now converted into a cloſe work, mounted with twenty-one pieces of heavy ordnance, and which, from intercepted letters, they conſidered as the key of the whole, and of great ſtrength,) it appeared, that if heavy cannon could be eſtabliſhed on points where the enemy had deemed it impoſſible to place them, that their works might be ruined, and then attacked to advantage.

This operation the officers of the navy chearfully undertook; and, by the moſt ſurpriſing exertions of ſcience and labour from the 12th to the 16th, placed four eighteen-pounders, a large howitzer, and a ten-inch mortar, in battery, on ground elevated at leaſt ſeven hundred feet above the ſea, and where every difficulty of aſcent and ſurface had oppoſed the undertaking.

On the 16th in the morning we opened with two batteries of three pieces of artillery each. One of theſe, at the diſtance of one thouſand yards, enfiladed the redoubt of the convention, and the other, at the diſtance of eight hundred yards, took it in reverſe. The redoubt itſelf was of a long and narrow form, occupying the ſummit of a detached height, and two hundred and fifty feet above the ſea.

Our fire was heavy and unremitting during the 16th and 17th; and, notwithſtanding the gallantry of the enemy, both in ſerving their guns and in repairing their works, their fire was nearly overpowered. On the evening of the 17th, a fifth eighteen-

pounder

pounder was brought up by the ſeamen, and a ſixth was alſo placed on an advanced point near the ſhore, to prevent the two French frigates in the bay from placing themſelves in a ſituation to enfilade our propoſed attack.

On the 17th, meaſures having been concerted, the ſecond battalion of the royals, 25th, 50th, and 51ſt, regiments, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Moore, were deſtined for the attempt, while the 11th, 30th, and 69th, remained in reſerve. The troops marched in three columns, and, having nearly equal diſtances to go over, moved at the ſame hour, (half paſt eight o'clock,) in order to arrive at the enemy's works a little after the riſing of the moon. Lieutenant-colonel Moore, on the right, with the ſecond battalion of the royals, commanded by Captain M'Kenzie, and the 51ſt regiment, came down on the advanced point of the redoubt. Lieutenant-colonel Wanchope, with the 50th, advanced towards its centre; and Captain Stewart, with the 25th, keeping cloſe to the ſea-ſhore, was directed to enter on the left and moſt commanding part of the work.

Notwithſtanding the whole of the ground over which the troops marched was rocky, rough, and covered with thick myrtle buſhes, they approached the redoubt without the enemy being certain of their progreſs, and, under a very heavy fire, they arrived nearly at the ſame time at their points, ruſhed into their works, prevented more than two or three diſcharges of cannon being given, and with their bayonets, drove the enemy down the ſteep hill which formed the rear of the work.

The judicious fire kept up from our batteries by Captain Wilkes and Lieutenant Duncan, jun. of the royal artillery, till the very moment of the attack, facilitated much the approach of the troops; and a falſe attack made by the Corſicans on Lieutenant-colonel Moore's right, ſerved alſo to engage and diſtract the attention of the enemy, who were not aware of the extent of their danger.

The loſs of the enemy on the 16th and 17th amount to upwards of one hundred men killed and wounded, and ten officers (amongſt whom was the commandant) and ſixty men made priſoners, out of five hundred and fifty men that occupied the work.

The conduct of Lieutenant-colonel Moore, of the ſeveral commanding officers, and of all the officers and ſoldiers under his orders, was firm and judicious, and merits every commendation.

The enemy being now reduced to their laſt poſts on the height of Fornelli, at about four hundred yards diſtance, from which we were ſeparated by a ſtrong and deep ravine, fearing that their retreat would be cut off, abandoned them about midnight, croſſed over to Florenzo, hauled off their frigates, and left us in poſſeſſion of the tower and batteries of Fornelli, againſt which we otherwiſe muſt have placed cannon, and, in a delay of two or three days, probably have loſt a number of men.

On the 18th the ſquadron anchored in perfect ſecurity in Mortella Bay. On the 19th, after taking meaſures for the march of the troops to the other ſide of the town to cut off the enemy's communication with Baſtia, a ſummons was ſent to Florenzo to ſurrender. In the afternoon a negative anſwer was received; but during the day ſtrong ſymptoms of a ſpeedy evacuation were perceived.

One of the frigates having been ſunk by our ſhot, the other was ſet on fire about four in the afternoon, when a boat came off to announce that the enemy had quitted the town. It was immediately taken poſſeſſion of.

On the 20th, by a party ſent out, we found that the enemy had evacuated ſeveral ſtrong poſts with cannon, which kept up their communication with Baſtia, towards which place they have retired as far as the Tower of Tichime, on a very high mountain, half way to that place, under which the road paſſes, and where they have cannon.

In this manner are we now maſters of the Fortreſs and Gulph of Florenzo, which is the moſt important ſtation in Corſica; divides the French poſts, affords a ſafe harbour for a numerous fleet, and, from its commanding ſituation, with reſpect to the coaſt of France and Italy, is at this moment of peculiar importance. The weather during the whole time has been moſt remarkably propitious; had it been otherwiſe, we could not have accompliſhed our undertaking.

The perſeverance, ſpirit, and gallantry, of the officers and men of every denomination merit the higheſt praiſe. In the courſe of the ſervice we have derived eſſential aſſiſtance from the Corſicans aſſembled near us by General Paoli, to the number of about one thouſand two hundred. They have occupied advanced poſts, and covered our flanks.

This letter will be delivered by Captain Hiſlop, deputy adjutant-general: an officer from whom I have received the moſt eſſential aſſiſtance. D. DUNDAS.

Return

Return of the Killed and Wounded of the Britiſh Troops in the different Attacks upon the French Poſt near San Florenzo, from the 7th to the 18th of February, 1794.

Royal Artificers. 1 rank and file killed.
Royal Artillery. 3 rank and file wounded.
2d Battalion of Royals. 5 rank and file killed; Lieutenant M'Donell, 1 ſerjeant, 16 rank and file, wounded.
11th Regiment. 1 rank and file killed.
25th Regiment. 2 rank and file wounded.
30th Regiment. 1 rank and file killed; 1 ſerjeant, 2 rank and file, wounded.
50th Regiment. 1 rank and file killed; 5 rank and file wounded.
51ſt Regiment. 4 rank and file killed; 8 rank and file wounded.

WHITEHALL, *March* 15.

By diſpatches, received on Thurſday laſt by the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, from Lieutenant-governor Williamſon, dated Jamaica the 19th of January laſt, and from Major Grant, of the ſame date, from Mole St. Nicholas in the iſland of St. Domingo, it appears that the united pariſhes of Leogane, and the pariſhes of Arcahaye and Jean de Rabel, in that iſland, have ſurrendered to his majeſty, upon the ſame terms which had been granted to Jeremie, Cape St. Nicholas, and St Marc; and that Mirebelais, near Port au Prince, had ſolicited leave to hoiſt the Britiſh flag, which had been complied with.

LIST of PRIZES, continued from Page 352.

THE Amphitrite armed ſhip has taken, and ſent into the Downs, the Margaretta Dorothea, (a Swede,) from Altona to Genoa, with wheat, &c. the Two Brothers, with wine, ſpirits, &c. and the Spes Nova, from Altona, with wheat, to a market.

The Britiſh Conſtitution, of Cowes, taken by the Inſurgent French frigate, is re-taken by the Hebe frigate.

The Der Rey Proie, a Swediſh brig, laden with wheat, &c. is taken by the Creſcent frigate, Capt. Saumarez.

The Experiment lugger, Lieut. George Hayes, has taken, off Calais, two Daniſh ſhips, and a Swediſh brig, laden with corn, and bound to France.

Letters have been received at Greenock, from on-board the Prince of Wales privateer of that place, dated St. Kitt's, 20th January, announcing the capture of a brig and a ſloop in one night, by the Prince of Wales, worth together 5000l. currency. The prizes were taken off Baſſeterre, Guadaloupe, and carried into St. Kitt's.

Capt. Nelſon, in the Agamemnon, of 64 guns, has intercepted a convoy of 14 veſſels, bound from Genoa to Corſica, laden with proviſions and military ſtores.

La Blanche frigate has taken the Sans Culottes privateer of 20 guns, ſuppoſed the late William of Liverpool, and carried her into St. Kitt's.

The St. Andrew letter of marque, belonging to Waterford, is arrived at Madeira under jury-maſts and in a leaky condition: ſhe took in with her a large American bark, belonging to Penſacola, bound to France, laden with flour.

A veſſel is arrived at Dover from Hamburgh, ſaid to be bound to Genoa, laden with gunpowder and ſalt-petre, taken off Calais by the Brilliant frigate.

The Suſannah letter of marque, Capt. Bottomley, belonging to Dublin, has taken and carried into Kinſale a large French ſhip, under American colours, laden with flour, &c. after a chace of four hours and a half.

The Daphne frigate has ſent into Weymouth the Neutrality, Gardberg, a Swede, laden with pitch, tar, hemp, &c. bound to France.

No leſs than twenty barks from Genoa to Nice, with corn and grain, have been taken by the Britiſh.

The ſhip Little John, from Baltimore to Maryland, an American veſſel and cargo American, is taken by a king's cutter, and brought into the Thames.

Two American ſhips, and a Swede, all laden with pot-aſh, &c. were ſtopped and brought back, after being permitted to clear out and ſail for Havre from the river Thames, on account of their having pot-aſh as a part of their cargo, which article, though not prohibited by law heretofore, is, it ſeems, now uſed by the French as an ingredient for ſalt-petre.

The General Waſhington, Capt. Cooper, from Philadelphia to Breſt, laden with flour, &c. is taken by the Faulkner letter of marque, and carried into Beaumaris.

The Swallow letter of marque, belonging to Liverpool, has taken and carried into Scilly a large American-built bark, under French colours, laden with flour, &c. bound to Dunkirk.

The Experiment letter of marque, mounting 16 guns, belonging to Kinſale, has taken and carried into Gibraltar the Two Brothers, Capt. Watkins, from Philadelphia to Breſt, laden with flour and naval ſtores, after a chace of four hours and a half, and firing ſeveral ſhot.

The Hermit, Williams, from Briſtol to the Weſt-Indies, has re-taken the Fox, from Liſbon to London, and ſent her into Cork.

MASQUE DE FER; OR, HISTORY OF THE MAN WITH THE IRON MASK.

THE man with the iron maſk, was a remarkable perſonage ſo denominated, who exiſted as a ſtate priſoner in France during the latter part of the laſt century. As the circumſtances of this perſon form an hiſtorical problem which has occaſioned much inquiry, and given riſe to many conjectures, as well as of late, in conſequence of the deſtruction of the Baſtile, excited in a particular manner the curioſity of the public, it ſhall be endeavoured to condenſe in this article the ſubſtance of every thing material that has been publiſhed on the ſubject. We ſhall firſt relate ſuch particulars concerning this extraordinary priſoner as appear to be well authenticated; and ſhall afterwards mention the different opinions and conjectures that have been entertained with regard to his real quality, and the cauſes of his confinement.

The authenticated particulars concerning the iron maſk are as follow:—A few months after the death of Cardinal Mazarine, there arrived at the iſle of Sainte Marguerite, in the ſea of Provence, a young priſoner whoſe appearance was peculiarly attracting: his perſon was above the middle ſize, and elegantly formed; his mein and deportment were noble, and his manners graceful; and even the ſound of his voice, it is ſaid, had in it ſomething uncommonly intereſting. On the road he conſtantly wore a maſk made with iron ſprings, to enable him to eat without taking it off. It was at firſt believed that this maſk was made entirely with iron; whence he acquired the name of "*the man with the iron maſk.*" His attendants had received orders to diſpatch him if he attempted to take off his maſk or diſcover himſelf.—He had been firſt confined at Pignerol, under the care of the governor M. de St. Mars; and, upon being ſent from thence to Sainte Marguerite, he was accompanied thither by the ſame perſon, who continued to have the charge of him. He was always treated with the moſt marked reſpect: he was ſerved conſtantly in plate; and the governor himſelf placed his diſhes on the table, retiring immediately after, and locking the door behind him. He *tu-to'yoit* (thee'd and thou'd) the governor; who, on the other hand, behaved to him in the moſt reſpectful manner, and never wore his hat before him, nor ſat down in his preſence unleſs he was deſired. The Marquis de Louvoiſis, who went to ſee him at St. Marguerite, ſpoke to him ſtanding, and with that kind of attention which denotes high reſpect.

During his reſidence here, he attempted twice, in an indirect manner, to make himſelf known. One day he wrote ſomething with his knife on a plate, and threw it out of his window towards a boat that was drawn on-ſhore near the foot of the tower. A fiſherman picked it up and carried it to the governor. M. de St. Mars was alarmed at the ſight; and aſked the man, with great anxiety, whether he could read, and whether any one elſe had ſeen the plate? The man anſwered, that he could not read, that he had but juſt found the plate, and that no one elſe had ſeen it. He was, however, confined till the governor was well aſſured of the truth of his aſſertions.—Another attempt to diſcover himſelf proved equally unſucceſsful. A young man, who lived in the iſle, one day perceived ſomething floating under the priſoner's window; and, on picking it up, he diſcovered it to be a very fine ſhirt written all over. He carried it immediately to the governor; who, having looked at ſome parts of the writing, aſked the lad, with ſome appearance of anxiety, if he had not had the curioſity to read it? He proteſted repeatedly that he had not: but two days afterwards he was found dead in his bed.

The Maſque de Fer remained in this iſle till the year 1698, when M. St. Mars, being promoted to the government of the Baſtile, conducted his

his priſoner to that fortreſs. In his way thither, he ſtopt with him at his eſtate near Palteau. The maſk arrived there in a litter, ſurrounded by a numerous guard on horſeback. M. de St. Mars ate at the ſame table with him all the time they reſided at Palteau; but the latter was always placed with his back towards the windows; and the peaſants, who came to pay their compliments to their maſter, and whom curioſity kept conſtantly on the watch, obſerved that M. de St. Mars always ſat oppoſite to him with two piſtols by the ſide of his plate. They were waited on by one ſervant only, who brought in and carried out the diſhes, always carefully ſhutting the door both in going out and in returning. The priſoner was always maſked, even when he paſſed through the court; but the people ſaw his teeth and lips, and alſo obſerved that his hair was grey.—The governor ſlept in the ſame room with him, in a ſecond bed that was placed in it on that occaſion. In the courſe of their journey, the iron-maſk was, one day, heard to aſk his keeper whether the king had any deſign on his life? "No, prince," he replied; "provided that you quietly allow yourſelf to be conducted, your life is perfectly ſecure."

The ſtranger was accommodated as well as it was poſſible to be in the Baſtile. An apartment had been prepared for him by order of the governor before his arrival, fitted up in the moſt convenient ſtyle; and every thing he expreſſed a deſire for was inſtantly procured him. His table was the beſt that could be provided; and he was ordered to be ſupplied with as rich clothes as he deſired: but his chief taſte in this laſt particular was for lace, and for linen remarkably fine. It appears that he was allowed the uſe of ſuch books as he deſired, and that he ſpent much of his time in reading. He alſo amuſed himſelf with playing upon the guitar. He had the liberty of going to maſs; but was then ſtrictly forbid to ſpeak or uncover his face: orders were even given to the ſoldiers to fire upon him if he attempted either; and their pieces were always pointed towards him as he paſſed through the court. When he had occaſion to ſee a ſurgeon or a phyſician, he was obliged, under pain of death, conſtantly to wear his maſk. An old phyſician of the Baſtile, who had often attended him when he was indiſpoſed, ſaid, that he never ſaw his face, though he had frequently examined his tongue, and different parts of his body; that there was ſomething uncommonly intereſting in the ſound of his voice; and that he never complained of his confinement, nor let fall from him any hint by which it might be gueſſed who he was. It is ſaid that he often paſſed the night in walking up and down his room.

This unfortunate prince died on the 19th of November 1703, after a ſhort illneſs; and was interred next day in the burying-place of the pariſh of St. Paul. The expence of his funeral amounted only to forty livres. The name given him was Marchiali: and even his age, as well as real name, it ſeemed of importance to conceal; for in the regiſter made of his funeral, it was mentioned that he was about forty years old; though he had told his apothecary, ſome time before his death, that he thought he muſt be ſixty.—It is a well-known fact, that, immediately after the priſoner's death, his apparel, linen, clothes, matraſſes, and in ſhort every thing that had been uſed by him, were burnt; that the walls of his room were ſcraped, the floor taken up, evidently from the apprehenſion that he might have found means of writing any thing that would have diſcovered who he was. Nay, ſuch was the fear of his having left a letter or any mark which might lead to a diſcovery, that his plate was melted down; the glaſs was taken out of the window of his room and pounded to duſt; the window-frame and doors burnt; and the ceiling of the room, and the plaſter of the inſide of the chimney, taken down. Several perſons have affirmed, that the body was buried without a head; and Monſieur de St. Foix informs us, that "a gentleman, having bribed the ſexton, had the body taken up in the night, and found a ſtone inſtead of the head."

The

The reſult of theſe extraordinary accounts is, that the iron maſk was not only a perſon of high birth, but muſt have been of great conſequence; and that his being concealed was of the utmoſt importance to the king and miniſtry.

Among the opinions and conjectures that have been formed concerning the real name and condition of this remarkable perſonage; ſome have pretended that he was the duke of Beaufort; others, that he was the Count de Vermandois, natural ſon to Louis XIV. by the ducheſs de la Valliere. Some maintain him to have been the duke of Monmouth, natural ſon of Charles II. of England by Lucy Walters; and others ſay, that he was Gerolami Magni, miniſter to the duke of Modena.

Beſides theſe conjectures, none of which poſſeſſes ſufficient probability to entitle them to conſideration, a fifth has been advanced; namely, That the Iron Maſk was a ſon of Anne of Auſtria, queen to Louis XIII. and conſequently that he was a brother of Louis XIV. but whether a baſtard brother, a brother-german, or a half brother, is a queſtion that has given riſe to three ſeveral opinions, which we ſhall ſtate in the order of time in which the reſpective tranſactions to which they allude happened.

The firſt opinion is, that the queen proved with child at a time when it was evident it could not have been by her huſband, who, for ſome months before, had never been with her in private. The ſuppoſed father of this child is ſaid by ſome to have been the duke of Buckingham who came to France in May 1625, to conduct the princeſs Henrietta, wife of Charles I. to England. The private letters and memoirs of thoſe times ſpeak very ſuſpiciouſly of the queen and Buckingham: his behaviour at Amiens, whither the queen and queen-mother accompanied the princeſs in her way to Boulogne, occaſioned much whiſpering: notwithſtanding the pains that have been taken by La Porte in his Memoires to excuſe his miſtreſs, it appears that the king, on this occaſion, was extremely offended at her, and that it required all the influence and addreſs of the queen-mother to effect a reconciliation. It is ſaid, that this child was privately brought up in the country; that when Mazarine became a favourite, he was entruſted with the care of him; and that Louis XIV. having diſcovered the ſecret on the death of the cardinal, thought it neceſſary to confine him in the manner that has been related.

But it may be obſerved, that this ſecret could ſcarcely have eſcaped the vigilance of the cardinal de Richlieu; and it is not improbable, that a miniſter ſo little ſcrupulous, if inclined to ſave the honour of a queen, would have removed a child, who, if he lived, might have been made uſe of to diſturb the tranquillity of the kingdom. After this ſuppoſed birth, the queen had frequent quarrels with the king, and, what was more dangerous, with the cardinal; who even uſed every means in his power to enquire into her moſt private tranſactions. It was on a memorable occaſion of this kind, that her ſervant La Porte was thrown into the Baſtile; and it can ſcarcely be imagined ſhe would have had the firmneſs ſhe then diſplayed, while conſcious of ſo much guilt, and under the riſk of having it diſcovered. The priſoner with the maſk appears, by ſeveral accounts, to have been a youth of a handſome figure in the year 1661; and in 1703, when he died, to have been above ſixty; but, had he been a ſon of Buckingham, he would have been about thirty-ſix in 1661, when he could not be ſaid to have been a youth; and, in November 1703, above ſeventy-eight.

The ſecond opinion is, that he was the twin-brother of Louis XIV. born ſome hours after him. This firſt appeared in a ſhort anonymous work publiſhed without date, and without the name of place or printer. It is therein ſaid, "Louis XIV. was born at St. Germains en Laye, on the 5th of September 1638, about noon; and the illuſtrious priſoner, known by the appellation of the Iron maſk, was born the ſame day, while Louis XIII. was at ſupper. The king and the cardinal, fearing that the pretenſions of a twin-brother might one day be employed

employed to renew thoſe civil wars with which France had been ſo often afflicted, cautiouſly concealed his birth, and ſent him away to be brought up privately. Having but an imperfect knowledge of the circumſtances that followed, I ſhall ſay nothing more, for fear of committing errors; but I firmly believe the fact I have mentioned; and time will probably prove to my reader, that I have ground for what I have advanced."

This opinion has been more noticed ſince the publication of a work called *Memoires du Marechal Duc de Richlieu*, written by the Abbé Soulavie; concerning which it may be proper to premiſe, that the preſent duke of Richlieu, ſon of the marechal, diſavows this work; while the Abbé Soulavie, who had been employed by the marechal, inſiſts on the authenticity of his papers. He informs us, that the duke of Richlieu was the lover of Mademoiſelle de Valois, daughter of the regent duke of Orleans, and afterwards ducheſs of Modena, who in return was paſſionately fond of him: that the regent had ſomething more than a paternal affection for his daughter; and that, though ſhe held his ſentiments in abhorrence, the duke of Richlieu made uſe of her influence with her father to diſcover the ſecret of the priſoner with the maſk: that the regent, who had always obſerved the moſt profound ſilence on this ſubject, was at laſt perſuaded to entruſt her with a manuſcript, which ſhe immediately ſent to her lover, who took a copy of it. This manuſcript is ſuppoſed to have been written by a gentleman on his death-bed, who had been the governor of the priſoner. The following is an extract of it, from what the Abbé Soulavie has told us:

"The birth of the priſoner happened in the evening of the 5th of September 1638, in preſence of the chancellor, the biſhop of Meaux, the author of the manuſcript, a midwife named Peronéte, and a ſieur Honorat. This circumſtance greatly diſturbed the king's mind; he obſerved, that the Salique law had made no proviſion for ſuch a caſe; and, that it was even the opinion of ſome, that the laſt born was the firſt conceived, and therefore had a prior right to the other. By the advice of cardinal de Richlieu, it was therefore reſolved to conceal his birth, but to preſerve his life, in caſe by the death of his brother it ſhould be neceſſary to avow him. A declaration was drawn up, and ſigned and ſworn to by all preſent, in which every circumſtance was mentioned, and ſeveral marks on his body deſcribed. This document, being ſealed by the chancellor with the royal ſeal, was delivered to the king; and all were commanded and took an oath never to ſpeak on the ſubject, not even in private and among themſelves. The child was delivered to the care of Madame Peronéte the midwife, to be under the direction of cardinal de Richlieu, at whoſe death the charge devolved to cardinal de Mazarine. Mazarine appointed the author of the manuſcript his governor, and entruſted to him the care of his education. But as the priſoner was extremely attached to Madame Peronéte, and ſhe equally ſo to him, ſhe remained with him till her death. His governor carried him to his houſe in Burgundy, where he paid the greateſt attention to his education. As the priſoner grew up, he became impatient to diſcover his birth, and often importuned his governor on that ſubject. His curioſity had been rouſed, by obſerving that meſſengers from the court frequently arrived at the houſe; and a box, containing letters from the queen and the cardinal, having one day been inadvertently left out, he opened it, and ſaw enough to gueſs at the ſecret. From that time he became thoughtful and melancholy, 'which (ſays the author) I could not then account for. He ſhortly after aſked me to get him a portrait of the late and preſent king, but I put him off by ſaying that I could not procure any that were good. He then deſired me to let him go to Dijon; which I have known ſince was with an intention of ſeeing a portrait of the king there, and of going ſecretly to St. John de Lus, where the court then was on occaſion of the marriage with the infanta. He was beautiful; and love

helped him to accompliſh his wiſhes. He had captivated the affections of a young houſekeeper, who procured him a portrait of the king. It might have ſerved for either of the brothers; and the diſcovery put him into ſo violent a paſſion, that he immediately came to me with the portrait in his hand, ſaying, *Voila mon frere, et voila qui je ſuis*, ſhewing me at the ſame time a letter of the cardinal de Mazarine that he had taken out of the box.' Upon this diſcovery his governor immediately ſent an expreſs to court to communicate what had happened, and to deſire new inſtructions; the conſequence of which was, that the governor and the young prince under his care were arreſted and confined."

This memoir, real or fictitious, concludes with ſaying, "I have ſuffered with him in our common priſon: I am now ſummoned to appear before my Judge on high; and, for the peace of my ſoul, I cannot but make this declaration, which may point out to him the means of freeing himſelf from his preſent ignominious ſituation, in caſe the king his brother ſhould die without children. Can an extorted oath compel me to obſerve ſecrecy on a thing ſo incredible, but which ought to be left on record to poſterity."

The third opinion is, that he was a ſon of the queen by the cardinal de Mazarine, born about a year after the death of her huſband Louis XIII. that he was brought up ſecretly; and that ſoon after the death of the cardinal, which happened on the 9th of March 1661, he was ſent to Pignerol. To this account Father Griffet objects, "that it was needleſs to maſk a face that was unknown; and therefore that this opinion does not merit diſcuſſion." But in anſwer it has been obſerved, That the priſoner might ſtrongly reſemble Louis XIV. which would be a ſufficient reaſon to have him maſked. This opinion is ſuppoſed to have been that entertained by Voltaire, who aſſerts his thorough knowledge of the ſecret, tho' he declined being altogether explicit. The Abbé Soulavie, author of Memoirs of the Marechal de Richlieu, ſpeaking on this ſubject, ſays "That he once obſerved to the marechal, that he certainly had the means of being informed who the priſoner was; that it even ſeemed that he had told Voltaire, who durſt not venture to publiſh the ſecret; and that he at laſt aſked him, whether he was not the elder brother of Louis XIV. born without the knowledge of Louis the XIII? That the marechal ſeemed embarraſſed, but afterwards ſaid, that he was neither the baſtard brother of Louis the XIV. nor the duke of Monmouth, nor the count of Vermandois, nor the duke of Beaufort, as different authors had advanced; that their conjectures were nothing but reveries: but added, that they however had related many circumſtances that were true; that in fact the order was given to put the priſoner to death if he diſcovered himſelf; and that he finiſhed the converſation by ſaying, All I can tell you on the ſubject is, that the priſoner was not of ſuch conſequence when he died, at the beginning of the preſent century, as he had been at the beginning of the reign of Louis XIV. and that he was ſhut up for important reaſons of ſtate." The Abbé Soulavie tells us, that he wrote down what had been ſaid, and gave it to the marechal to read, who corrected ſome expreſſions. The abbé having propoſed ſome further queſtions, he anſwered, "Read what Voltaire publiſhed laſt on the ſubject of the priſoner with the maſk, eſpecially at the end, and reflect on it." —The paſſage of Voltaire alluded to is as follows:

"The man with the maſk (ſays he) is an enigma of which every one would gueſs the meaning. Some have ſaid that it was the duke of Beaufort; but the duke of Beaufort was killed by the Turks in the defence of Candy in 1669, and the priſoner with the maſk was at Pignerol in 1661. Beſides, how could the duke of Beaufort have been arreſted in the midſt of his army, and brought to France, without any one knowing it? and why confine him? and why that maſk?—Others have dreamed that he was the count de Vermandois, natural

natural ſon of Louis XIV. who died publicly at the army in 1683 of the ſmall-pox, and was buried at the little town of Aire and not Arras; in which Father Griffet was miſtaken, but in which to be ſure there is no great harm.—Others have imagined, that it was the duke of Monmouth, who was beheaded publicly in London in the year 1685. But of this he muſt have riſen again from the dead, and he muſt have changed the order of time, and placed the year 1662 in the room of the year 1685. King James, who never forgave any one, and who on that account deſerved all that happened to him, muſt have pardoned the duke of Monmouth, and got another to die in his ſtead, who perfectly reſembled him. This Sofia muſt firſt have been found, and then he muſt have had the goodneſs to let his head be cut off in public, to ſave the duke of Monmouth. It was neceſſary that all England ſhould be miſtaken; and that King James ſhould beg of Louis XIV. to be ſo obliging as to be his gaoler; that Louis XIV. after having ſhewn this trifling piece of civility to King James, ſhould not have been wanting in the ſame attention to his friend King William and to Queen Anne (with both of whom he was engaged in war), and, to pleaſe them, retained the dignity of gaoler, with which James had honoured him. All theſe illuſions being diſſipated, it then remains to know who this priſoner was, and at what age he died. It is clear, that if he was not permitted to croſs the court of the Baſtile, or to ſpeak to his phyſician, except covered with a maſk, it muſt have been from the apprehenſion that his features and countenance might have diſcovered ſome reſemblance. He could ſhew his tongue, but not his face. He ſaid himſelf to the apothecary of the Baſtile, a few days before his death, that he believed he was about ſixty. Mr. Marſoban, who was ſon-in-law to this apothecary, and ſurgeon to the marechal de Richlieu, and afterwards to the regent duke of Orleans, told me this frequently. Why give him an Italian name?—They always called him Marchiali. He who writes this article perhaps knows more than Father Griffet, but he will ſay nothing farther."

This opinion has been lately reſumed, illuſtrated, and enforced, by M. de Saint Mihiel, in a work entitled *Le Veritable Homme*, &c. "The real Man with the Iron Maſque." The author, in ſupport of his idea, attempts to prove that Anne of Auſtria and the Cardinal Mazarine were married. This, ſays he, the ducheſs of Orleans aſſures us of in three of her letters. In the firſt, dated Sept. 13, 1713, ſhe expreſſes herſelf as follows: "Old Beauvais, who was firſt lady of the bed-chamber to the queen-dowager, was acquainted with the ſecret of the ridiculous marriage; this rendered it neceſſary for the queen to do every thing that her confidant wiſhed; and this circumſtance has given riſe in this country to an extenſion of the rights of firſt ladies of the bed-chamber." In the ſecond of theſe letters, dated Nov. 2, 1717, ſhe ſays, "The queen-mother, widow of Louis XIII. did worſe than love Cardinal Mazarine; ſhe even married him, for he was not a prieſt: he was not even in orders; and who could have hindered her? He was moſt horribly tired of the good queen-mother, and lived on very bad terms with her, which is the reward that people deſerve for entering into ſuch marriages." In her third letter, dated July 2, 1719, ſpeaking of the queen, the ducheſs ſays, "She was perfectly eaſy reſpecting Cardinal Mazarine; he was not a prieſt, and therefore nothing could prevent their being married. The ſecret paſſage through which the cardinal went every evening to the queen's apartment is ſtill to be ſeen at the Palais-Royal." Among other proofs beſides the above, which M. de St. Mihiel brings to ſubſtantiate this marriage, he obſerves, that Mazarine held all councils of ſtate in his apartment whilſt he was ſhaving or dreſſing; that he never permitted any perſon to ſit down in his preſence, not even the chancellor nor marſhal de Villeroi; and that while they were deliberating with him on ſtate-affairs he would be often playing with his monkey or linnet. What man (continues the author)

thor) would have ſubjected to ſuch humiliations a chancellor, who holds the firſt office in the kingdom ſince that of conſtable has been ſuppreſſed, and a marſhal who was governor to the king, had he not been in reality a ſovereign himſelf, in virtue of his being huſband to the queen-regent? He therefore concludes, that the man with the iron maſk was ſon to Anne of Auſtria and Cardinal Mazarine; and endeavours to juſtify this aſſertion by a variety of conjectural proofs. Of ſome of theſe we ſhall give a ſhort ſketch.

No prince, or perſon of any conſideration, after the year 1644, at which time the man with the iron maſk was born, until the time when his exiſtence was known, diſappeared in France. This perſonage, therefore, was not a prince or great lord of France known at that time.

The man with the iron maſk was not a foreigner; for foreigners, even of the higheſt diſtinction, did not at that period ſtudy the French language in ſuch a manner as to attain ſo great perfection in it as to paſs for Frenchmen. If this priſoner had ſpoken with the leaſt foreign accent, the officers, phyſicians, ſurgeons, apothecaries, confeſſors, and others employed in the priſons where he was, and eſpecially the priſoners with whom he converſed at St. Margaret, would not have failed to diſcover it. From all this M. de St. Mihiel infers that he muſt have been a Frenchman.

The exiſtence of the man with the iron maſk has been known for upwards of ninety years. Had any perſon of rank diſappeared at an anterior period, his friends, relations, or acquaintances, would not have failed to claim him, or at leaſt to ſuppoſe that he was the man concealed by this maſk. But no one diſappeared, nor was any one claimed: the man with the iron maſk was therefore a perſon unknown. This man was not torn away from ſociety on account of any criminal action; for, when he was arreſted, it was foreſeen that he would cauſe much embaraſſment, and occaſion great expences. He was therefore not a criminal, elſe means would have been purſued to get rid of him; and conſequently all the importance of his being concealed was attached ſolely to his perſon. This ſtranger muſt have been a perſon of very high birth; for the governor of the priſon St. Mars behaved always to him with the greateſt reſpect. Louis XIII. played on the guitar; Louis XIV. did the ſame in a very maſterly manner; and the man with the iron maſk played alſo on that inſtrument: which gives us reaſon to believe that his education was directed by the ſame perſons who had preſided over that of Louis XIV. and who appear to have been the particular choice of Anne of Auſtria.

This ſtranger died on the 19th of November 1703; and a few days before his death, he told the apothecary of the Baſtile, that he believed he was about ſixty years of age. Suppoſing that he was then fifty-nine and a half, he muſt have been born towards the end of May 1644; and, if he was ſixty wanting three months, he muſt have been born in the end of Auguſt, or the beginning of September, of the ſame year; a period when the royal authority was in the hands of Anne of Auſtria, but in reality exerciſed more by Mazarine than by her. "I have already proved (continues the author), that, from the firſt day of the regency of Anne of Auſtria, the greateſt friendſhip, and even intimacy, ſubſiſted between this princeſs and the cardinal; that theſe ſentiments were changed into a mutual love; and that they were afterwards united by the bonds of marriage. They might, therefore, well have a ſon about the month of September 1644, as Louis XIII. had been then dead more than fifteen months, having died on the 15th of May the year preceding. But nothing of what I have related, or of what has been written, and acknowledged as fact, reſpecting the man with the iron maſk, can be applied, except to a ſon of Mazarine and Anne of Auſtria. The man with the iron maſk was indebted, therefore for his exiſtence to Cardinal Mazarine and the regent widow of Louis XIII."—To account for the manner in which the

queen

queen was able to conceal her pregnancy and delivery, Madame de Moteville is quoted; who relates, under the year 1644, that Anne of Auſtria quitted the Louvre, becauſe her apartments there diſpleaſed her: that ſhe went to reſide at the Palais-Royal, which Richlieu, when he died, bequeathed to the deceaſed king: that when ſhe firſt occupied this lodging, *ſhe was dreadfully afflicted with the jaundice*; that the phyſicians aſcribed this diſorder to her dejection and application to buſineſs, which gave her much embarraſſment: but that being cured of her melancholy, as well as of her malady, ſhe reſolved to think only of enjoying tranquillity; which ſhe did, by communicating to her miniſter the burden of public affairs. On this quotation, M. de St. Mihiel aſks, "Is it not very ſingular, that the queen, who, during the twenty-nine years of her former wedded ſtate, had always reſided in the Louvre, eſpecially from 1626, when Louis XIII. ceaſed to cohabit with her, until their re-union, which took place in the beginning of December 1637, ſhould have quitted it preciſely in 1644, becauſe ſhe was diſpleaſed with her apartments? How happened it that her apartments diſpleaſed her this year, and neither ſooner nor later? She might undoubtedly have had any kind of furniture there which ſhe deſired, and every alteration made according to her wiſhes, as ſhe was then abſolute miſtreſs: but the cauſe of her determination is plain; the apartments of the Palais-Royal, which front a garden, were much more convenient for her to be delivered in ſecret."

As it is neceſſary that ſome name ſhould be given to every man, in order to diſtinguiſh him from another, that of *Marchiali* was given to the man with the iron maſk: a name which evidently ſhews, that it had been invented by an Italian. Cardinal Mazarine was a native of Piſcina in the Abruzzo.—Anne of Auſtria was remarkably delicate reſpecting every thing that touched her perſon. It was with great difficulty that cambric could be found fine enough to make ſhifts and ſheets for her. Cardinal Mazarine, once rallying her on this ſubject, ſaid, *That, if ſhe ſhould be damned, her puniſhment in hell would be to lie in Holland ſheets.* The predominant taſte of the man with the iron maſk was to have lace and linen of the moſt extraordinary fineneſs. "Who (ſays the author) does not perceive, in this ſimilarity of taſtes, the maternal tenderneſs of Anne of Auſtria, who would have thought her ſon a great ſufferer had he not been indulged with fine linen."

"Louis XIII. (continues M. de St. Mihiel) was a huſband of a gloomy diſpoſition, and an enemy to pleaſure: while the queen, on the contrary, was fond of ſocial life; and introduced at the court of France, eſpecially after ſhe became free, that eaſe and politeneſs which diſtinguiſhed it under Louis XIV. from all the other courts of Europe. Louis XIII. had alſo a diſagreeable countenance, and a breath ſo offenſive, that it was a puniſhment for Richlieu to remain near him. It is clear, therefore, that ſhe could not be much pleaſed with ſuch a huſband. When ſhe became regent of the kingdom by the king's death, which happened on the 14th of May 1643, as ſhe had not enjoyed that happineſs which ariſes from a cloſe union of hearts, it will not appear extraordinary that ſhe ſhould indulge the affection ſhe entertained for Cardinal Mazarine, and that ſhe ſhould marry him. Every circumſtance that could tend to favour ſuch a marriage will be found united in her ſituation. She was at a diſtance from her family; abſolute miſtreſs of all her actions; and had, beſides, a heart formed for love. Mazarine, though a cardinal, had never entered into orders; he gave out that he was deſcended from a great family; he was handſome and well made; he was of a mild inſinuating diſpoſition, and remarkably engaging in converſation; and his office of prime miniſter afforded him every opportunity of viſiting and converſing with the queen whenever he thought proper. Is it, therefore, ſo very aſtoniſhing, that, with ſo many advantages, he was able to captivate the queen ſo far as to induce her to marry him? Such a marriage

riage was not, indeed, according to the uſual courſe of things. Yet it was not without many precedents, particularly among ſovereigns of the other ſex, who had given their hands to perſons of inferior rank. Thus Chriſtian IV. of Denmark eſpouſed Chriſtina Monck; Frederic IV. eſpouſed Mademoiſelle Rewentlau; James II. heir to the throne of England, married the daughter of a counſellor; Peter the Great raiſed to the throne Catharine I. the daughter of a poor villager, yet perhaps the moſt accompliſhed woman at that time between the Viſtula and the pole; and Louis XIV. eſpouſed the widow of a poet, but a woman poſſeſſed of the moſt extraordinary merit. As the women, however, are not forgiven ſo readily as the men for entering into ſuch marriages, Anne of Auſtria kept hers a ſecret from this motive, and becauſe ſhe would have been in danger of loſing the regency of the kingdom had it been known."

The reaſoning of M. de St. Mihiel is both ingenious and plauſible; but the account immediately preceding, ſeems now to be univerſally believed; and a late ingenious author has attempted to ſhew, that the tragical end of Louis XVI. and Maria Antoinette of Auſtria, is an awful verification of the words of the firſt commandment, "*I will viſit the ſins of the fathers upon the children, even unto the* THIRD *generation*;" ſuggeſting, that, the vengeance of heaven alighted upon them in retribution of the ſufferings and premature death of the man with the iron maſk, who appears to have been the legal heir to the crown of France.

CHARACTER OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

THE character of this hero is equally compoſed of very great virtues, and very great vices. He had no mediocrity in any thing but his ſtature: in his other properties, whether good or bad, he was all extremes. His ambition roſe even to madneſs. His father was not at all miſtaken in ſuppoſing the bounds of Macedon too ſmall for his ſon: for how could Macedon bound the ambition of a man, who reckoned the whole world too ſmall a dominion? He wept at hearing the philoſopher Anaxarchus ſay, that there was an infinite number of worlds: his tears were owing to his deſpair of conquering them all, ſince he had not yet been able to conquer one. Livy, in a ſhort digreſſion, has attempted to enquire into the events which might have happened, if Alexander, after the conqueſt of Aſia, had brought his arms into Italy? Doubtleſs things might have taken a very different turn with him; and all the grand projects, which ſucceeded ſo amazingly well againſt an effeminate Perſian monarch, might very eaſily have miſcarried if he had to do with rough hardy Roman armies. And yet the vaſt aims of this mighty conqueror, if ſeen under another point of view, may appear to have been confined in a very narrow compaſs; ſince as we are told, the utmoſt wiſh of that great heart, for which the whole earth was not big enough, was, after all, to be praiſed by the Athenians: for it is related, that the difficulties which he encountered in order to paſs the Hydaſpes, forced him to cry out, "O Athenians, could you believe to what dangers I expoſe myſelf for the ſake of being celebrated by you?" But Bayle affirms, that this was quite conſiſtent with the vaſt unbounded extent of his ambition, as he wanted to make all future time his own, and be an object of admiration to the lateſt poſterity; yet did not expect this from the conqueſt of worlds, but from books. He was perfectly in the right, ſays Bayle; "for, if Greece had not furniſhed him with good writers, he would long ago have been as much forgotten as the kings who reigned in Macedon before Amphitryon."

Alexander has been much praiſed upon the ſcore of continency. Indeed, the fire of his early youth appeared ſo cold towards women, that his mother ſuſpected him to be impotent; and, to ſatisfy herſelf in this point, did, with the conſent of Philip, procure a very handſome courtezan

to lie with him, whoſe careſſes, however, were all to no purpoſe. His behaviour afterwards to the Perſian captive ſhews him to have had a great command over himſelf in this particular. The wife of Darius was a finiſhed beauty; her daughters likewiſe were all beauties; yet this young prince, who had them in his power, not only beſtowed on them all the honours due to their high rank, but managed their reputation with the utmoſt delicacy. They were kept as in a cloyſter concealed from the world, and ſecured from the reach of every diſhonourable (not only attack, but) imputation. He did not give the leaſt handle to ſcandal, either by his viſits, his looks, or his words: and for other Perſian dames his priſoners, equally beautiful in face and ſhape, he contented himſelf with ſaying gaily, that they gave indeed much pain to his eyes. The Amazon queen Thaleſtris could not obtain from him a compliance with her gallant requeſt till after a delay of thirteen days. In the mean time, what are we to conclude from his cauſing his favourite miſtreſs Pancaſte to be drawn naked by Apelles, though it is true he gave her to the painter, who fell in love with her? What of that immoderate love of boys, which Athenæus relates of him? What of that prodigious number of wives and concubines which he kept?

His exceſſes with regard to wine were notorious, and beyond all imagination; and he committed, when drunk, a thouſand extravagancies. It was owing to wine, that he killed Clytus who ſaved his life, and burnt Perſepolis, one of the moſt beautiful cities of the Eaſt: he did this laſt at the inſtigation of the courtezan Thais; but this circumſtance made it only the more heinous. His intrepidity and preſence of mind in the midſt of danger, and in the heat of battle, could only be excelled by his generoſity and humanity to his vanquiſhed foes. The wiſdom and juſtice with which he directed the internal government of the cities he conquered, are a high proof of his moderation and clemency; and of which the following is a pleaſing as well as intereſting fact.

The city of Sidon having ſurrendered to Alexander, he ordered Hephæſtion, his general, to beſtow the crown on him whom the Sidonians ſhould think moſt worthy of that honour. Hephæſtion, being at that time reſident with two young men of diſtinction, offered them the kingdom; but they refuſed it, telling him that it was contrary to the laws of their country to admit any one to that honour who was not of the royal family. Alexander, having expreſſed his admiration of their diſintereſted ſpirit, deſired them to name one of the royal race, who might remember that he received the crown through their hands. Overlooking many who would have been ambitious of this high honour, they made choice of Abdolonymus, whoſe ſingular merit had rendered him conſpicuous even in the vale of obſcurity. Though remotely related to the royal family, a ſeries of misfortunes had reduced him to the neceſſity of cultivating a garden, for a ſmall ſtipend, in the ſuburbs of the city.

While Abdolonymus was buſily employed in weeding his garden, the two friends of Hephæſtion, bearing in their hands the enſigns of royalty, approached him, and ſaluted him king, informing him that Alexander had appointed him to that office; and requiring him immediately to exchange his ruſtic garb, and utenſils of huſbandry, for the regal robe and ſceptre. At the ſame time, they urged him, when he ſhould be ſeated on the throne, and have a nation in his power, not to forget the humble condition from which he had been raiſed.

All this, at the firſt, appeared to Abdolonymus as an illuſion of the fancy, or an inſult offered to his poverty. He requeſted them not to trouble him farther with their impertinent jeſts, and to find ſome other way of amuſing themſelves, which might leave him in the peaceable enjoyment of his obſcure habitation.—At length, however, they convinced him that they were ſerious in their propoſal, and prevailed upon him to accept the regal office, and accompany them to the palace.

No ſooner was he in poſſeſſion of the government, than pride and envy created him enemies, who whiſpered their murmurs in every place, till at laſt they reached the ear of Alexander; who, commanding the new-elected prince to be ſent for, required of him, with what temper of mind he had borne his poverty. "Would to heaven," replied Abdolonymus, "that I may be able to bear my crown with equal moderation: for, when I poſſeſſed little, I wanted nothing: theſe hands ſupplied me with whatever I deſired." From this anſwer, Alexander formed ſo high an idea of his wiſdom, that he confirmed the choice he had before made, and annexed a neighbouring province to the government of Sidon.

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

PÆTUS AND ARRIA.

IN the reign of Claudius, the Roman emperor, Arria, the wife of Cæcinna Pætus, was an illuſtrious pattern of magnanimity, of love, and conjugal affection.

It happened that her huſband and her ſon were both, at the ſame time, attacked with a dangerous illneſs. The ſon died. He was a youth endowed with every quality of mind and perſon which could endear him to his parents. His mother's heart was torn with all the anguiſh of grief; yet ſhe reſolved to conceal the diſtreſſing event from her huſband. She prepared and conducted his funeral ſo privately, that Pætus did not know of his death. Whenever ſhe came into her huſband's bed-chamber, ſhe pretended her ſon was better; and, as often as he inquired after his health, would anſwer, that he had reſted well, or had eaten with an appetite. When ſhe found that ſhe could no longer reſtrain her grief, but her tears were guſhing out, ſhe would leave the room, and, having given vent to her paſſion, return again with dry eyes and a ſerene countenance, as if ſhe had left her ſorrow behind her at the door of the chamber.

Camillus Scribonianus, the governor of Dalmatia, having taken up arms againſt Claudius, Pætus joined himſelf to his party, and was ſoon after taken priſoner, and brought to Rome. When the guards were going to put him on-board the ſhip, Arria beſought them that ſhe might be permitted to go with him: "Certainly," ſaid ſhe, "you cannot refuſe a man of conſular dignity, as he is, a few attendants to wait upon him; but, if you will take me, I alone will perform their office." This favour, however, was refuſed; upon which ſhe hired a ſmall fiſhing veſſel, and boldly ventured to follow the ſhip.

Returning to Rome, Arria met the wife of Scribonianus in the emperor's palace, who preſſing her to diſcover all that ſhe knew of the inſurrection,—"What!" ſaid ſhe, "ſhall I regard thy advice, who ſaw thy huſband murdered in thy very arms, and yet ſurviveſt him?"

Pætus being condemned to die, Arria formed a deliberate reſolution to ſhare his fate, and made no ſecret of her intention. Thraſea, who married her daughter, attempting to diſſuade her from her purpoſe: among other arguments which he uſed, ſaid to her, "Would you then, if my life were to be taken from me, adviſe your daughter to die with me?" "Moſt certainly I would," ſhe replied, "if ſhe had lived as long, and in as much harmony, with you, as I have lived with Pætus."

Perſiſting in her determination, ſhe found means to provide herſelf with a dagger: and one day, when ſhe obſerved a more than uſual gloom on the countenance of Pætus, and perceived that death by the hand of the executioner appeared to him more terrible than in the field of glory—perhaps, too, ſenſible that it was chiefly for her ſake that he wiſhed to live—ſhe drew the dagger from her ſide, and ſtabbed herſelf before his eyes. Then, inſtantly plucking the weapon from her breaſt, ſhe preſented it to her huſband, ſaying, "My Pætus, it is not painful."—In the

Tatler, No. 12, a fancy piece is drawn, founded on the principal fact in this ſtory, but wholly fictitious in the circumſtances of the tale. The author, miſtaking Cæcinna Pætus for Thraſea Pætus, has accuſed even Nero unjuſtly; charging him with an action which certainly belonged to Claudius. See Pliny's Epiſtles, Book iii. Ep. 16. Dion. Caſſius, Lib. lx. and Tacitus, Lib. xvi. §. 35.

A LIBERAL EDUCATION NECESSARY FOR MEN OF BUSINESS.

AMONG the cautions which prudence and worldly wiſdom inculcate on the young, or at leaſt among thoſe ſober truths which experience often pretends to have acquired, is that danger which is ſaid to reſult from the purſuit of letters and of ſcience, in men deſtined for the labours of buſineſs, or for the active exertions of profeſſional life. The abſtraction of learning, the ſpeculations of ſcience, and the viſionary excurſions of fancy, are fatal, it is ſaid, to the ſteady purſuit of common objects, to the habits of plodding induſtry which ordinary buſineſs demands. The fineneſs of mind, which is created or increaſed by the ſtudy of letters, or the admiration of the arts, is ſuppoſed to incapacitate a man for the drudgery by which profeſſional eminence is gained; as a nicely-tempered edge, applied to a coarſe and rugged material, is unable to perform what a more common inſtrument would have ſucceſsfully atchieved. A young man deſtined for law or commerce is adviſed to look only into his folio of precedents, or his method of book-keeping; and Dullneſs is pointed to his homage, as that benevolent goddeſs, under whoſe protection the honours of ſtation, and the bleſſings of opulence, are to be attained; while learning and genius are proſcribed, as leading their votaries to barren indigence and merited neglect. In doubting the truth of theſe aſſertions, I think I ſhall not entertain any hurtful degree of ſcepticiſm, becauſe the general current of opinion ſeems of late years to have ſet too ſtrongly in the contrary direction; and one may endeavour to prop the falling cauſe of literature, without being accuſed of blameable or dangerous partiality.

In the examples which memory and experience produce, of idleneſs, of diſſipation, and of poverty, brought on by an indulgence of literary or poetical enthuſiaſm, the evidence muſt neceſſarily be on one ſide of the queſtion only. Of the few whom learning or genius have led aſtray, the ill ſucceſs or the ruin is marked by the celebrity of the ſufferer. Of the many who have been as dull as they were profligate, and as ignorant as they were poor, the fate is unknown from the inſignificance of thoſe by whom it was endured. If we may reaſon *a priori* on the matter, the chances, I think, ſhould be on the ſide of literature.

In young minds of any vivacity, there is a natural averſion to the drudgery of buſineſs, which is ſeldom overcome, till the effervеſcence of youth is allayed by the progreſs of time and habit, or till that very warmth is enliſted on the ſide of their profeſſion by the opening proſpects of ambition or emolument. From this tyranny, as youth conceives it, of attention and of labour, relief is commonly ſought from ſome favourite avocation or amuſement, for which a young man either finds or ſteals a portion of his time, either patiently plods through his taſk, in expectation of its approach, or anticipates its arrival, by deſerting his work before the legal period for amuſement is arrived. It may fairly be queſtioned, whether the moſt innocent of thoſe amuſements is either ſo honourable or ſo ſafe, as the avocations of learning or of ſcience. Of minds uninformed and groſs, whom youthful ſpirits agitate, but fancy and feeling have no power to impel, the amuſements will generally be either boiſterous or effeminate, will either diſſipate their attention, or weaken their force. The employment of a young man's vacant hours is often too little attended to by thoſe rigid maſters who exact the moſt ſcrupulous obſervance

obſervance of the periods deſtined for buſineſs. The waſte of time is undoubtedly a very calculable loſs; but the waſte or the depravation of mind is a loſs of a much higher denomination. The votary of ſtudy, or the enthuſiaſt of fancy, may incur the firſt; but the latter will be ſuffered chiefly by him whom ignorance, or want of imagination, has left to the groſſneſs of mere ſenſual enjoyments.

In this as in other reſpects, the love of letters is friendly to ſober manners and virtuous conduct, which in every profeſſion is the road to ſucceſs and reſpect. Without adopting the common-place reflections againſt ſome particular departments, it muſt be allowed, that in mere men of buſineſs, there is a certain profeſſional rule of right, which is not always honourable, and, though meant to be ſelfiſh, very ſeldom profits. A ſuperior education generally corrects, this, by opening the mind to different motives of action, to the feelings of delicacy, the ſenſe of honour, and a contempt of wealth when earned by a deſertion of thoſe principles.

The moral beauty of thoſe diſpoſitions may perhaps rather provoke the ſmile, than excite the imitation, of mere men of buſineſs and the world. But I will venture to tell them, that, even on their own principles, they are miſtaken. The qualities which they ſometimes prefer as more calculated for puſhing a young man's way in life, ſeldom attain the end, in contemplation of which they are not ſo nice about the means. This is ſtrongly exemplified by the ill ſucceſs of many, who, from their earlieſt youth, had acquired the higheſt reputation for ſharpneſs and cunning. Thoſe trickiſh qualities look to ſmall advantages unfairly won, rather than to great ones honourably attained. The direct, the open, and the candid, are the ſureſt road to ſucceſs in every department of life. It needs a certain ſuperior degree of ability to perceive and adopt this; mean and uninformed minds ſeize on corners, which they cultivate with narrow views to very little advantage: enlarged and well-informed minds embrace great and honourable objects; and, if they fail of obtaining them, are liable to none of thoſe pangs which rankle in the boſom of artifice defeated, or of cunning over-matched.

To the improvement of our faculties, as well as of our principles, the love of letters appears to be favourable. Letters require a certain ſort of application, though of a kind perhaps very different from that which buſineſs would recommend. Granting that they are unprofitable in themſelves, as that word is uſed in the language of the world; yet, as developing the powers of thought and reflection, they may be an amuſement of ſome uſe, as thoſe ſports of children in which numbers are uſed familiariſe them to the elements of arithmetic. They give room for the exerciſe of that diſcernment, that compariſon of objects, that diſtinction of cauſes, which is to increaſe the ſkill of the phyſician, to guide the ſpeculations of the merchant, and to prompt the arguments of the lawyer; and, though ſome profeſſions employ but very few faculties of the mind, yet there is ſcarce any branch of buſineſs in which a man who can think will not excel him who can only labour. We ſhall accordingly find, in many departments where learned information ſeemed of all qualities the leaſt neceſſary, that thoſe, who poſſeſſed it in a degree above their fellows, have found, from that very circumſtance, the road to eminence and to wealth.

But I muſt often repeat, that wealth does not neceſſarily create happineſs, nor confer dignity: a truth which it may be thought declamation to inſiſt on, but which the preſent time ſeems particularly to require being told. The influx of foreign riches, and of foreign luxury, which this country has of late experienced, has almoſt levelled every diſtinction but that of money among us. The creſt of noble or illuſtrious anceſtry has ſunk before the ſudden accumulation of wealth in vulgar hands: but that were little, had not the elegance of manners, had not the dignity of deportment, had not the pride of virtue, which uſed to characteriſe ſome of our high-born names, given way to that tide of fortune

tune which has lifted the low, the illiterate, and the unfeeling, into ſtations of which they were unworthy. Learning and genius have not always reſiſted the torrent; but I know no bulwarks better calculated to reſiſt it. The love of letters is connected with an independence and delicacy of mind, which is a great preſervative againſt that ſervile homage which abject men pay to fortune; and there is a certain claſſical pride, which, from the ſociety of Socrates and Plato, Cicero and Atticus, looks down with an honeſt diſdain on the wealth-blown inſects of modern times, neither enlightened by knowledge, nor ennobled by virtue. The "non omnis moriar" of the poet draws on futurity for the deficiencies of the preſent; and, even in the preſent, thoſe avenues of more refined pleaſure, which the cultivation of knowledge, of fancy, and of feeling, opens to the mind, give to the votary of ſcience a real ſuperiority of enjoyment in what he poſſeſſes, and free him from much of that envy and regret which leſs cultivated ſpirits feel from their wants.

In the poſſeſſion, indeed, of what he has attained, in that reſt and retirement from his labours, with the hopes of which his fatigues were lightened, and his cares were ſoothed, the mere man of buſineſs frequently undergoes ſuffering, inſtead of finding enjoyment. To be buſy, as one ought, is an eaſy art; but to know how to be idle is a very ſuperior accompliſhment. This difficulty is much increaſed with perſons to whom the habits of employment has made ſome active exertion neceſſary; who cannot ſleep contented in the torpor of indolence, or amuſe themſelves with thoſe lighter trifles in which he, who inherited idleneſs as he did fortune from his anceſtors, has been accuſtomed to find amuſement. The miſeries and mortifications of the "retired pleaſures" of men of buſineſs have been frequently matter of ſpeculation to the moraliſt, and of ridicule to the wit. But he who has mixed general knowledge with profeſſional ſkill, and literary amuſement with profeſſional labour, will have ſome ſtock wherewith to ſupport him in idleneſs, ſome ſpring for his mind when unbent from buſineſs, ſome employment for thoſe hours which retirement or ſolitude has left vacant and unoccupied. Independence in the uſe of one's time is not the leaſt valuable ſpecies of freedom. This liberty the man of letters enjoys; while the ignorant and the illiterate often retire from the thraldom of buſineſs, only to become the ſlaves of languor, intemperance, or vice.

But the ſituation in which the advantages of that endowment of mind which letters beſtow are chiefly conſpicuous, is old age, when a man's ſociety is neceſſarily circumſcribed, and his powers of active enjoyment are unavoidably diminiſhed. Unfit for the buſtle of affairs and the amuſements of his youth, an old man, if he has no ſource of mental exertion or employment, often ſettles into the gloom of melancholy and peeviſhneſs, or petrifies his feelings by habitual intoxication. From an old man whoſe gratifications were ſolely derived from thoſe ſenſual appetites which time has blunted, or from thoſe trivial amuſements of which youth only can ſhare, age has cut off almoſt every ſource of enjoyment. But to him who has ſtored his mind with information, and can ſtill employ it in the amuſement of letters, this blank of life is admirably filled up. He acts, he thinks, and he feels, with that literary world whoſe ſociety he can at all times enjoy. There is perhaps no ſtate more capable of comfort to ourſelves, or more attractive of veneration from others, than that which ſuch an old age affords; it is then the twilight of the paſſions, when they are mitigated but not extinguiſhed, and ſpread their gentle influence over the evening of our days, in alliance with reaſon, and in amity with virtue.

Nor perhaps, if fairly eſtimated, are the little poliſh and complacencies of ſocial life leſs increaſed by the cultivation of letters, than the enjoyment of ſolitary or retired leiſure. To the politeneſs of form and the eaſe of manner, buſineſs is naturally unfavourable, becauſe buſineſs looks to the uſe, not the decoration, of things. But the man of buſineſs who has

has cultivated letters will commonly have ſoftened his feelings, if he has not ſmoothed his manner or poliſhed his addreſs. He may be aukward, but will ſeldom be rude; may treſpaſs in the ignorance of ceremonial, but will not offend againſt the ſubſtantial rules of civility. In converſation, the pedantry of profeſſion unavoidably inſinuates itſelf among men of every calling. The lawyer, the merchant, and the ſoldier, naturally ſlide into the accuſtomed train of thinking, and the accuſtomed ſtyle of converſation. The pedantry of the man of learning is generally the moſt tolerable and the leaſt tireſome of any; and he, who has mixed a certain portion of learning with his ordinary profeſſion, has generally corrected, in a conſiderable degree, the abſtraction of the one and the coarſeneſs of the other.

In the more important relations of ſociety, in the cloſer intercourſe of friend, of huſband, and of father, that ſuperior delicacy and refinement of feeling which the cultivation of the mind beſtows, heighten affection into ſentiment, and mingle with ſuch connections a dignity and tenderneſs which give its deareſt value to our exiſtence. In fortunate circumſtances thoſe feelings enhance proſperity; but in the decline of fortune, as in the decline of life, their influence and importance are chiefly felt. They ſmooth the harſhneſs of adverſity, and on the brow of misfortune print that languid ſmile, which their votaries would often not exchange for the broadeſt mirth of thoſe unfeelingly proſperous men, who poſſeſs good fortune, but have not a heart for happineſs.

HINTS FOR THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

[*Concluded from page* 311.]

WE come now to the Roman Hiſtory.

Polybius Lycorta, a learned Grecian, and an intimate friend of both the Scipios, wrote his moſt admirable hiſtory during his reſidence in a public capacity at Rome, almoſt two hundred years before the birth of Chriſt. There were originally forty books of this work; but no more than the five firſt and a few ſcraps of the reſt have reached the preſent age. Polybius was a native of Megalopolis. He learned eloquence and philoſophy under his own father Lycortas, a man greatly diſtinguiſhed for the firmneſs with which he ſupported the intereſts of the Achean republic againſt the ambitious deſigns of the Romans. Philopœmen was his maſter in the art of war. His merit was ſoon known at Rome, where many of the principal citizens cultivated his acquaintance; and, particularly the two ſons of Paulus Æmilius, of whom the youngeſt, who was adopted by Cornelius Scipio the ſon of the great Africanus, and who deſtroyed Numantia and Carthage, profited very much by his inſtructions. His hiſtory contained not only the Roman tranſactions, but thoſe of all the then known world, from the firſt Punic war, to the ruin of the kingdom of Macedonia, comprehending, altogether, a ſpace of fifty-three years. Polybius, therefore, called it an univerſal hiſtory, and divided it into forty books, of which only the five firſt now remain. The loſs of the reſt is very much to be regretted; for we ſhould have found there a repreſentation of the grandeſt and moſt intereſting ſcenes ever diſplayed on the theatre of the world. There we ſhould have ſeen, particularly in the period of the ſecond Punic war, the two moſt warlike and powerful nations then in the world engaged in the moſt ſerious and important conteſt; Rome on the very brink of deſtruction; and Carthage finally vanquiſhed and undone. There, too, we ſhould have found an account of the wars of the Romans with Philip King of Macedon, with Antiochus King of Syria, with the Ætolians, and with King Perſeus; in a word, the whole chain of events that conducted Rome to the utmoſt pitch of

power,

power, and enabled her to ſwallow up all the ſtates and kingdoms in our hemiſphere. This loſs is ſo much the greater, that Polybius beſtowed the utmoſt care and attention to procure the beſt information with reſpect to facts; and, that he might not be miſtaken about the ſituation of places, he himſelf travelled to the ſpots where the principal engagements deſcribed by him happened. Beſides all this, Polybius abounds with the juſteſt reflections; and every where delivers the moſt ſolid maxims of policy; two particulars that conſtitute the chief excellence of every hiſtorian, and from which a reader derives the moſt valuable inſtruction. It is true, that his digreſſions are generally tedious; but the facts they contain are ſo curious, that it were rigorous to find fault with them. Polybius, having returned into the Peloponneſe after the deſtruction of Corinth, had an opportunity of defending the memory of his maſter Philopœmen from an accuſation of his having been an enemy of the Roman people; and he acquitted himſelf with ſuch eloquence and force of argument, that a decree was paſſed, forbidding the ſtatues ſet up in honour of that hero to be demoliſhed or hurt. Polybius was likewiſe choſen by the Roman commiſſioners to viſit the conquered towns, and to ſettle any diſputes that had ariſen among them. This commiſſion he executed with ſuch admirable prudence and equity, that ſtatues were, in different places, erected to his honour. After this, he went back to Scipio at Rome, with whom he lived till the death of that illuſtrious Roman, when he once more returned to his native country, and there ended his days at the age of eighty-two years.—There is a folio edition of Polybius, with Caſaubon's notes, printed at Paris, 1609. This fragment was tranſlated into French by Thulliers, and in 1727 was publiſhed at Paris with a very elaborate commentary by Chevalier Folard, 7 vol. 4to. with fine plates.

Caius Criſpus Salluſtius was born in ſome part of Italy, and educated at Rome. He was honoured for ſome time with a ſeat in the Roman ſenate, but was expelled on account of his diſſolute life; he was reſtored by Julius Cæſar, and entruſted with the province of Numidia, which province he ſo fleeced as to return to Rome loaded with riches; but his wealth was of ſhort duration, for he ſquandered it as profuſely as it was unjuſtly acquired.—Some remains of his Roman Hiſtory, as alſo his *Hiſtoria Belli Catilinarii & Jugurthini*, are ſtill in being; of which there is a good edition, with notes, printed at Amſterdam, 1472, 2 vol. 4to. The beſt Engliſh tranſlation of Salluſt is that publiſhed near forty years ago by W. Roſe, A. M. in a pocket volume.

Julius Cæſar, the firſt Roman emperor, with whoſe life and heroiſm the world is generally acquainted, has ſhewn us, that there are hours of tranquillity and repoſe to be found even amidſt the hurry of the moſt important government. A prince cannot poſſibly employ his leiſure time better than in literary amuſements; but he ſhould be particularly cautious as to the object of his ſtudy, leſt he ſhould inadvertently expoſe himſelf to the cavillings of certain writers, who may not chooſe to conſider him as a prince, but merely as an author. Even Cæſar's Commentaries, however generally admired, have not eſcaped criticiſm: Aſinius Pollio, who lived in the reign of Auguſtus, charges them with the want both of elegance and veracity, and Bayle ſeems to be of the ſame opinion; a like ſentiment appears alſo in Voſſius.—Cæſar's Commentaries were firſt printed at Rome in the year 1460 in folio; ſince which an incredible number of editions have been publiſhed in various parts of the world; they are univerſally read in ſchools.—Louis XIV. when a boy, tranſlated part of Cæſar's Commentaries; and the work was publiſhed under this title: *La Guerre des Suiſſes, traduite du premier Livre des Commentaires de Jule Cæſar, par Louis XIV. Roy de France. Paris, 1751. de l'Imprimeire royale, in folio, avec figures.* This is a very grand tranſlation, it muſt be confeſſed; yet there is another, with a leſs pompous title-page, done by Baron Spanheim, which deſerves the preference.

Diodorus Siculus lived in the time of Julius Cæsar and Augustus. His work, intitled, The Historical Library, comprehended forty books, of which only fifteen now remain. The five first immediately follow one another, contain the history of the fabulous times, and treat of what happened previous to the siege of Troy. The next seven books comprehend the history of the Persians and Greeks, from the expedition of Xerxes into Greece, till the death of Alexander. And the three last give us the history of Alexander's successors. Diodorus is a very valuable historian; and, though he appears to have given rather too much credit to the traditions of the priests, yet we have great reason to regret the loss of the rest of his history. His style unites simplicity with perspicuity, and his works abound with judicious reflections.

Dionysius Halicarnassensis resided at Rome no less than two and twenty years in the reign of Augustus. His *Antiquitates Romanæ* consisted originally of twenty books, but of these no more than the first eleven have been preserved. He was, as his name imports, a native of Halicarnassus, a city of Caria in Asia Minor. He came into Italy about the time of the battle of Actium gained by Augustus against Antony. During the residence of Dionysius at Rome, he formed an acquaintance with the most learned men then in that city, and studied very carefully the works of the most esteemed historians. The learned discover in Dionysius a profound erudition, a most acute spirit of criticism, a mind void of prejudice, a love of truth, and a professed hatred of impiety. We are particularly obliged to him for the knowledge he has given us of the religion and manners of the Romans. His style is simple and elegant, and he appears more solicitous about shewing his learning, than about the ornaments of eloquence—The best edition, with a French translation, was printed at Orfurth in 1704, with Hudson's notes. An excellent English translation was published in the year 1758 by Edward Spellman, Esq.

Titus Livius, who was born at Padua, is generally allowed to deserve the first place among historians; partly from his own merit, and partly on account of the particular favours conferred on him by the emperor Augustus, who is said to have assisted him with the materials necessary in compiling his Roman History. After the death of Augustus he returned to Padua, and died, on the same day with Ovid, in the fourth year of the reign of Tiberius. His History, the first part of which is founded only on tradition, began with the foundation of Rome, and ended with the death of Drusus; but of a hundred and forty books unfortunately no more than thirty-five are now in being. He was no less esteemed during his life than he has been ever since his death.—His Roman History was first printed at Venice in 1470, fol. and there is a very good edition published at Amsterdam in 1710, with Freinsheim's and Le Clerc's notes, in 10 vol. 8vo.

M. Velleius Paterculus was first, in the reign of Augustus, tribune of the people; and was afterwards honoured with the command of the cavalry, in Germany, under Tiberius. His Epitome of the Roman History is allowed to be chronologically accurate; and he has, in general, done justice to the memory of great men. As to his panegyric on Tiberius, it has had no other effect upon the minds of posterity than that of exposing its author. His style and language do honour to the times in which he wrote; insomuch that we have great reason to lament that his works were not handed down to us entire.—The best edition of this author was printed at Leyden, under the inspection of Burmannus, with notes, &c. 1744, 8vo.

Cornelius Tacitus lived in the times of Vespasian, Domitian, and Nerva; under the government of the last he arrived at the consular dignity. Where he was born is uncertain. His history and annals carry with them the marks of a masterly pen. Never was historian more universally and deservedly esteemed; nor can any one boast of a more numerous list of commentators: on the other hand, he has

has alſo had many enemies. But, ſince whoever has the feweſt defects is the moſt perfect, Tacitus undoubtedly deſerves the praiſe he has acquired. His ideas are ſo pertinent, and ſo happily expreſſed, that in all probability he will continue a model, and alſo a ſtumbling-block, to all future hiſtorians.—The firſt edition of Tacitus was publiſhed at Venice about the year 1467. There is a very good edition, laſt publiſhed at Utrecht in 1721, 2 vol. 4to. with notes by Gronovius.

C. Suetonius Tranquillus (whoſe works were firſt publiſhed at Rome in 1470, fol.) had not been long at Hadrian's court before he fell into diſgrace, and was obliged to fly. Writing was his chief employment, and he is ſaid to have left behind him works of various kinds; but of theſe there are none remaining except his Lives of the Twelve Cæſars. There is a peculiar boldneſs in this hiſtorian, which may ſerve to teach all great people how neceſſary it is that they ſhould be on their guard in every action of their lives; for there will certainly be found ſome future Suetonius, in every nation and in every age, who will dare to lift up the veil, and ſhow them to the world as they really are.—A good edition of this author was publiſhed at Amſterdam in 1736, 2 vol. quarto, with notes by Caſaubon, Burmannus, and other learned commentators.

Appianus Alexandrinus, a famous Greek writer, who connected the Roman hiſtory with that of other nations as far as they were naturally interwoven, dividing it into different periods as they were concerned with different people. Some part of his work only has eſcaped thoſe evils which have robbed us of ſo many valuable books. He lived in the reigns of Trajan, Hadrian, and Antoninus Pius.—The firſt impreſſion of his works appeared at Venice in 1472, fol. and the laſt at Amſterdam in 1670, in 2 vol. octavo.

Dion Caſſius was of Greek extraction. He was ſome time governor of Smyrna; but in the year 229, in the reign of Alexander Severus, was made conſul. Yet he was at laſt obliged to retire to Nicea, the place of his birth, where, in perfect tranquillity, he wrote his Roman Hiſtory, in the Greek language, of which a part is ſtill extant. He is juſtly reproached with having been prejudiced againſt Pompey, Cicero, Seneca, and other great men.—His Roman Hiſtory, in forty-ſix books, in Greek and Latin, with notes, was printed at Hanover in 1606, folio.

Lucius Annæus Florus, of the ſame family with Seneca and Lucan, lived about two hundred years after the birth of Chriſt. His epitome of the Roman hiſtory wants that uniformity of manner and ſimplicity of ſtile ſo pleaſing in an elegant hiſtorian.—This author was firſt publiſhed by Pontanus, and afterwards by Salmaſius and Mad. Dacier, with notes. In the year 1704 were printed at Cologne his *Libri duo priores ex Criticorum Obſervationibus correcti, cum textus ratione, notiſque variorum, &c. ex editione Laur. Bergeri, folio, cum figuris.*

Herodian wrote his Roman Hiſtory in Greek, his native language. It begins from the death of Marcus Aurelius, and concludes with that of Papienus, at which time Herodian was himſelf at the court of Rome. The work is divided into eight books; and contains, in particular, an account of the ſuperſtitious ceremonies uſed at the deification of the emperors.—An edition of this work, with a verſion, was printed at Leyden in 1745, in 8vo. with Stephens's notes.

Eutropius ſerved under the emperor Julian, and in the fourth century, marched with him againſt the Perſians. His abbreviation of the Roman hiſtory, conſiſting of ten books, begins with the foundation of the republic, and continues down to the times of Valentinian, to whom he dedicates his work, *Eutropii Breviarum Hiſtoriæ Romanæ, cum Metaphraſi Græca Paeani: & notis integris variorum, ex recenſione Sig. Havencampii, Leyden,* 1729, 8vo.

Sextus Aurelius Victor likewiſe lived in the reign of Julian, in the fourth century. In the year 369 he was conſul at the ſame time with Valentinian. This author likewiſe has left us an epitome of the Roman hiſtory;

tory; of which the laſt edition was publiſhed at Amſterdam *cum notis var.* 1733, 4to.

Ammianus Marcellinus died about the year of Chriſt 390, after he had finiſhed, in a ſtile not the moſt pleaſing, an hiſtory, which, from the matter it contains, muſt neceſſarily be of ſome importance. It originally conſiſted of thirty-one books; but of theſe, eighteen only, which take in that period between Conſtantine and Gratianus, have eſcaped deſtruction. —The firſt edition of this author appeared at Rome in 1474, under this title: *Ammiani Marcellinii rerum geſtarum libri a XIV. ad XXVI. ex editione A. Sabini Pœtæ.* But the beſt edition of theſe remaining eighteen books was printed at Leyden in 1693, *cum annotationibus Lingenbrogii & Valeſcionum, ex editione & cum notis Jac. Gronovii, cum fig.*

Ælius Spartianus lived in Dioclesian's reign. He wrote the lives of Hadrian, Caracalla, and four other emperors.

Julius Capitolinus, alſo a Roman hiſtorian, lived in the third century.

Ælius Lampridus, in the fourth century, wrote the lives of Commodus, Diaduminian, Eliogabalus, and Alexander Severus; which he dedicated to Conſtantine.

Trebellius Pollio compoſed, towards the end of the third century, a hiſtory of the Roman emperors, of which no more remains than a part of the reigns of Velerian, Gallien, and the thirty tyrants. But, as he was not an hiſtorian of the moſt diſtinguiſhed veracity, the loſs of the reſt of his works is the leſs to be lamented. This is indeed generally the caſe: when once a man has been detected in a lie, he will find it extremely difficult to regain that credit of which all honeſt men muſt be ambitious.

Flavius Vopiſcus was born at Syracuſe, and lived, in the beginning of the ſixth century, in the reigns of Diocleſian and Chlorus. He ſettled at Rome, and there wrote the lives of Aurelian and Tacitus. His works are of no great eſtimation; nevertheleſs they happen to have been preſerved.—Theſe four laſt-mentioned hiſtorians, together with Vulcatius Gallicanus, who lived about the ſame time, were publiſhed together at Paris in 1620, folio; and at Leyden in 1632, in 4 vol. 12mo.

Plutarch, a famous Greek writer, may not improperly be added to this catalogue. He lived in the reign of Trajan, by whom he was much honoured and eſteemed. Beſides his moral writings and ſome other pieces, fortunately are preſerved his Lives of eminent Greeks and Romans. This work is indeed biographical; yet, at the ſame time that it affords many excellent examples both for kings and ſubjects, it alſo throws a conſiderable light upon the times in which thoſe great men lived. Plutarch, was a native of Cheronea in Bœotia, and lived in the reign of the emperor Nero. He performed ſeveral journeys into Italy, to collect materials for his Lives of Illuſtrious Men; and he numbered among his friends the greateſt men of Rome, who took delight in hearing him reaſon in Greek on matters of philoſophy. At laſt, he fixed his conſtant reſidence in his native country, where he was honoured with the firſt employments, and diſcharged thoſe, as well as all the duties of private life, with admirable care and prudence, ſhewing himſelf to be a good father, a good huſband, a good maſter, and a good citizen; and his virtue was rewarded with the ſweeteſt harmony and peace in his family. His Diſcourſes on Morals contain very uſeful maxims for the conduct of life, ſublime notions about the divinity and immortality of the ſoul, and are interſperſed throughout with curious anecdotes. But the Lives of Illuſtrious Men is the work that has immortalized the name of Plutarch. It is looked upon as the moſt proper book in the world, to form men either for private life or public employments; and abounds with particulars highly worthy of obſervation. Things are there eſtimated at their real value. He does not confine himſelf to the great and ſhining actions alone, of the illuſtrious men whoſe lives he writes; "He does not ſatisfy himſelf," ſays M. Rollin, "to paint the commander, the conqueror, the politician,

litician, the magiſtrate, the orator; but introduces his reader into the cloſet, as it were, or rather, indeed, into the hearts of thoſe of whom he ſpeaks; and there makes him acquainted with the father, the huſband, the maſter, the friend. We ſeem to live and to converſe with them, and to be preſent at their parties of pleaſure, their walks, their feaſts, their converſations. Cicero ſomewhere obſerves, that in walking through Athens, and the places adjacent, one could hardly advance a ſtep without meeting with ſome ancient monument mentioned in hiſtory, which recalled to the imagination the remembrance of ſome great man of antiquity, and rendered him in a manner preſent.—The reading of Plutarch's Lives," continues M. Rollin, "produces a ſimilar effect, preſenting, as it were, before our eyes, the great men of whom he ſpeaks, and giving us an idea of their behaviour and manners, as lively and ſtrong as if we were living with them." For this reaſon, the loſs of ſome of thoſe lives is the more to be regretted. Plutarch ſhews himſelf, on all occaſions, to be a great painter; and his ſtyle, though plain and ſimple, is nevertheleſs lively, and expreſſive; but not every where equally ſupported. Plutarch is cenſured for his fondneſs of ſtory-telling; and, indeed, provided a ſtory be curious, he never fails to introduce it, and to give a very minute detail of it, however remote its connection may be with the ſubject in hand. But his reflections are always ſenſible and pertinent. We are likewiſe indebted to him for having preſerved to us ſpecimens of the writings of ſome of his great men. —A good edition of *Plutarchi Vita illuſtrium Virorum*, with a Latin tranſlation, was publiſhed at Paris in 1624, in 2 vol. folio.—A ſupplement to Plutarch's Lives was publiſhed by Mr. Thomas Rowe, huſband to the celebrated poeteſs; and is much eſteemed by the learned.

We ſhall conclude for the preſent with two other biographical writers, Diogenes Laertius and Cornelius Nepos.—Nepos was a cotemporary and intimate friend of Cicero: he wrote the Lives of eminent Commanders.—Laertius, in the reign of Alexander Severus, wrote the Lives of the ancient Philoſophers.

A future number may perhaps make the reader acquainted with the moſt eminent hiſtorians of France and England.

THE UNFORTUNATE LOTTERY TICKET.

YOU will not be ſurpriſed, Mr. Editor, when I tell you that I have had very bad luck in the lottery; but you will ſtare when I further tell you, it is becauſe unluckily I have got a conſiderable prize in it. I received the glad tidings of misfortune laſt Saturday night, when, on looking over the liſt of prizes, as I was got behind my pipe at the club, I found that my ticket was come up a 2000l. In the pride as well as the joy of my heart, I could not help proclaiming to the company—my good luck, as I then fooliſhly thought it, and as the company thought it too, by inſiſting that I ſhould treat them that evening. Friends are never ſo merry, nor ſtay longer, than when they have nothing to pay: they never care how extravagant they are on ſuch occaſions. Bottle after bottle was therefore called for, and that too of claret, though not one of us, I believe, but had rather had port. In ſhort, I reeled home as well as I could about four in the morning; when thinking to pacify my wife, who began to rate me (as uſual) for ſtaying out ſo long, I told her the occaſion of it; but inſtead of rejoicing, as I thought ſhe would, ſhe cried—"Piſh, only two thouſand pounds!" However, ſhe was at laſt reconciled to it, taking care to remind me, that ſhe had choſen the ticket herſelf, and ſhe was all along ſure it would come up a prize, becauſe the number was an odd one. We neither of us got a wink of ſleep, though I was heartily inclined to it: for my wife kept me awake—by telling me of this, that, and

and t'other, thing, which ſhe wanted, and which ſhe would now purchaſe, as we could afford it.

I know not how the news of my ſucceſs ſpread ſo ſoon among my other acquaintance, except that my wife told it to every one ſhe knew, or not knew, at church. The conſequence was, that I had no leſs than ſeven very hearty friends came to dine with us by way of wiſhing us joy; and the number of theſe hearty friends was increaſed to above a dozen by ſupper time. It is kind in one's friends to be willing to partake of one's ſucceſs; they made themſelves very merry literally at my expence; and, at parting, told me they would bring ſome more friends, and have another jolly evening with me on this happy occaſion.

When they were gone, I made ſhift to get a little reſt, though I was often diſturbed by my wife talking in her ſleep. Her head, it ſeems, literally ran upon wheels; that is, the lottery-wheels: ſhe frequently called out that ſhe had got the ten thouſand pounds; ſhe muttered ſeveral wild and incoherent expreſſions about gowns, and ruffles, and ear-rings, and necklaces; and I once heard her mention the word coach. In the morning when I got up, how was I ſurpriſed to find my good fortune publiſhed to all the world in the newſpaper! though I could not but ſmile (and Madam was greatly pleaſed) at the printer's exalting me to the dignity of eſquire, having been nothing but plain Mr. all my life before. And now the misfortunes ariſing from my good fortune began to pour in thick upon me. In conſequence of the information given in the news-paper, we were no ſooner ſat down to breakfaſt than we were complimented with a rat-a-tatoo from the drums, as if we had been juſt married: after theſe had been ſilenced in the uſual method, another band of muſic ſaluted us with a peal from the marrow-bones and cleavers to the ſame tune. I was harraſſed the whole day with petitions from the hoſpital boys that drew the ticket, the commiſſioners clerks that wrote down the number of the ticket, and the clerks of the office where I bought the ticket, all of them praying, "That my honour would conſider them." I ſhould be glad you would inform me what theſe people would have given me if I had had a blank.

My acquaintance in general called to know when they ſhould wait upon me to wet my good fortune. My own relations, and my wife's relations, came in ſuch ſhoals to congratulate me, that I hardly knew the faces of many of them. One inſiſted on my giving a piece of plate to his wife; another recommended to me to put his little boy (my two-and-fortieth couſin) out 'prentice; another, lately white-waſhed, propoſed to me my ſetting him up again in buſineſs; and ſeveral of them very kindly told me, they would borrow three or four hundred pounds of me, as they knew I could now ſpare it.

My wife in the mean time, you may be ſure, was not idle in contriving how to diſpoſe of this new acquiſition. She found out, in the firſt place, (according to the complaint of moſt women,) that ſhe had not got a gown to her back, or at leaſt not one fit for her now to appear in. Her wardrobe of linen was no leſs deficient; and ſhe diſcovered many chaſms in our furniture, eſpecially in the articles of plate and china. She is alſo determined to ſee a little pleaſure, as ſhe calls it, and has actually made a party to go to the next opera. Now, in order to ſupply theſe immediate wants and neceſſities, ſhe has prevailed on me (though at a great loſs) to turn the prize into ready money; which I dared not refuſe her, becauſe the number was her own chooſing: and ſhe has further perſuaded me (as we have had ſuch good luck) to lay out a great part of the produce in purchaſing more tickets, all of her own chooſing. To me it is indifferent which way the money goes; for, upon my ſtating the balance, I already find I ſhall be a loſer by my gains: and all my fear is, that one of the future tickets may come up a five or ten thouſand pound prize, by which my ruin would be completed.

AN-

ANCIENT AND MODERN PUNISHMENTS FOR ADULTERY.

PUNISHMENTS have been annexed to adultery in moſt ages and nations, though of different degrees of ſeverity. In many it has been capital; in others venial, and attended only with ſlight pecuniary mulcts. Some of the penalties are ſerious, and even cruel; others of a jocoſe and humorous kind. Even contrary things have been enacted as puniſhments for adultery. By ſome laws, the criminals are forbid marrying together, in caſe they became ſingle; by others, they are forbid to marry any beſides each other; by ſome, they are incapacitated from ever committing the like crime again; by others, they are glutted with it till it becomes downright naſeous.

Among the rich Greeks, adulterers were allowed to redeem themſelves by a pecuniary fine; the woman's father, in ſuch caſes, returned the dower he had received from her huſband, which ſome think was refunded by the adulterer. Another puniſhment among thoſe people was, putting out the eyes of adulterers.

The Athenians had an extraordinary way of puniſhing adulterers, practiſed at leaſt on the poorer ſort who were not able to pay the fines. This was an awkward ſort of empalement, performed by thruſting one of the largeſt radiſhes up the anus of the adulterer, or, in defect thereof, a fiſh, with a large head, called *mugil*, "mullet." Alcæus is ſaid to have died this way, though it is doubted whether the puniſhment was reputed mortal. Juvenal and Catullus ſpeak of this cuſtom as received alſo among the Romans, though not authoriſed by an expreſs law, as it was among the Greeks.

There are various conjectures concerning the ancient puniſhment of adultery among the Romans. Some will have it to have been made capital by a law of Romulus, and again by the twelve tables. Others, that it was firſt made capital by Auguſtus; and others not before the emperor Conſtantine. The truth is, the puniſhment in the early days was very various, much being left to the diſcretion of the huſband and parents of the adulterous wife, who exerciſed it differently, rather with the ſilence and countenance of the magiſtrate than any formal authority from him. Thus we are told, the wife's father was allowed to kill both parties, when caught in the fact, provided he did it immediately, killed both together, and as it were with one blow. The ſame power ordinarily was not indulged the huſband, except the crime were committed with ſome mean or infamous perſon; though, in other caſes, if his rage carried him to put them to death, he was not puniſhed as a murderer. On many occaſions, however, revenge was not carried ſo far; but mutilating, caſtrating, cutting off the ears, noſes, &c. ſerved the turn. The puniſhment allotted by the *lex Julia*, was not as many have imagined, death; but rather baniſhment, or deportation, being interdicted fire and water: though Octavius appears, in ſeveral inſtances, to have gone beyond his own law, and to have put adulterers to death. Under Macrinus, many were burnt at a ſtake. Conſtantine firſt by law made the crime capital. Under Conſtantius and Conſtans, adulterers were burnt, or ſewed in ſacks and thrown into the ſea. Under Leo and Marcian, the penalty was abated to perpetual baniſhment, or cutting off the noſe. Under Juſtinian, a farther mitigation was granted, at leaſt in favour of the wife, who was only to be ſcourged, loſe her dower, and be ſhut up in a monaſtery: after two years, the huſband was at liberty to take her back again; if he refuſed, ſhe was ſhaven, and made a nun for life: but it ſtill remained death in the huſband. The reaſon alledged for this difference is, that the woman is the weaker veſſel. Matthæus declaims againſt the empreſs Theodora, who is ſuppoſed to have been the cauſe of this law, as well as of others procured in favour of that ſex from the emperor.

Under

Under Theodoſius, women convicted of this crime were puniſhed after a very ſingular manner, viz. by a public conſtupration; being locked up in a narrow celi, and forced to admit to their embraces all the men that would offer themſelves. To this end, the gallants were to dreſs themſelves on purpoſe, having ſeveral little bells faſtened to their clothes, the tinkling of which gave notice to thoſe without of every motion. This cuſtom was aboliſhed by the ſame prince.

By the Jewiſh law, adultery was puniſhed by death in both parties, where they were both married, or only the woman. The Jews had a particular method of trying, or rather purging, an adultereſs, or a woman ſuſpected of the crime, by making her drink the bitter waters of jealouſy; which, if ſhe were guilty, made her ſwell.

Among the Mingrelians, according to Chardin, adultery is puniſhed with the forfeiture of a hog, which is uſually eaten in good freindſhip between the gallant, the adultereſs, and the cuckold. In ſome parts of the Indies, it is ſaid, any man's wife is permitted to proſtitute herſelf to him who will give an elephant for the uſe of her; and it is reputed no ſmall glory to her to have been rated ſo high. Adultery is ſaid to be ſo frequent at Ceylon, that not a woman but practiſes it, notwithſtanding its being puniſhable with death. Among the Japaneſe, and divers other nations, adultery is only penal in the woman. Among the Abyſſinians, the crime of the huſband is ſaid to be puniſhed on the innocent wife. In the Marian iſlands, on the contrary, the woman is not puniſhable for adultery; but if the man go aſtray he pays ſeverely; the wife and her relations waſte his lands, turn him out of his houſe, &c. Among the Chineſe, adultery is not capital; for it is ſaid that fond parents will make a contract for their daughters future huſbands to allow them the indulgence of a gallant.

In Spain, they puniſhed adultery in men by cutting off that part which had been the inſtrument of the crime. In Poland, before Chriſtianity was eſtabliſhed, they puniſhed adultery and fornication in a very particular manner: the criminal they carried to the market-place, and there faſtened him by the teſticles with a nail; laying a razor within his reach, and leaving him under a neceſſity, either of doing juſtice upon himſelf or of periſhing in that condition.

The Saxons formerly burnt the adultereſs, and over her aſhes erected a gibbet, whereon the adulterer was hanged. In this kingdom, likewiſe, adultery, by the ancient laws, was ſeverely puniſhed. King Edmund the Saxon ordered adultery to be puniſhed in the ſame manner as homicide; and Canute the Dane ordered that a man who committed adultery ſhould be baniſhed, and that the woman ſhould have her noſe and ears cut off. In the time of Henry I. it was puniſhed with the loſs of eyes and genitals.

In Britain, adultery is reckoned a ſpiritual offence, that is, cognizable by the ſpiritual courts, where it is puniſhed by fine and penance. The common law takes no farther notice of it, than to allow the party grieved an action and damages. This practice is often cenſured by foreigners, as making too light of a crime, the bad conſequences of which, public as well as private, are ſo great. It has been anſwered, that perhaps this penalty, by civil action, is more wiſely calculated to prevent the frequency of the offence, which ought to be the end of all laws, than a ſeverer puniſhment. He that by a judgment of law is, according to circumſtances, ſtripped of great part of his fortune, thrown into priſon till he can pay it, or forced to fly his country, will no doubt, in moſt caſes, own that he pays dearly for his amuſement.

As to the moral turpitude of this offence, ſome have vainly endeavoured to deny or explain it away by various arguments, and even by an appeal to ſcripture. On the part of the man who ſolicits the chaſtity of a married woman, it certainly includes the crime of ſeduction, and is attended with miſchief ſtill more complicated and extenſive: it creates a new ſufferer, the injured huſband, upon whoſe ſimplicity and affection is inflicted a

wound the moſt painful and incurable that human nature knows. The infidelity of the woman is aggravated by cruelty to her children, who are generally involved in their parents ſhame, and always made unhappy by their quarrel.

It has been argued, that theſe conſequences ought leſs to be attributed to the crime than to the diſcovery. But, in the firſt place, the crime could not be diſcovered unleſs it were committed, and the commiſſion is never ſecure from diſcovery. Secondly, if adulterous connections were allowable whenever the parties could hope to eſcape detection, which is the concluſion to which this argument leads, the huſband would be left no other ſecurity for his wife's chaſtity, than in her want of opportunity or temptation: which would probably deter moſt men from marrying: or render marriage a ſtate of continual jealouſy and alarm to the huſband, which would end in the ſlavery and confinement of the wife.

The marriage-vow is "witneſſed before God," and accompanied with circumſtances of ſolemnity and religion which approach to the nature of an oath. The married offender, therefore, incurs a crime little ſhort of perjury, and the ſeduction of a married woman is little leſs than ſubordination of perjury:—and this guilt is independent of the diſcovery.

But the uſual apology for adultery is the prior tranſgreſſion of the other party; and ſo far indeed, as the bad effects of adultery are anticipated by the conduct of the huſband or wife who offends firſt, the guilt of the ſecond offender is extenuated. But this can never amount to a juſtification; unleſs it could be ſhewn that the obligation of the marriage-vow depends upon the condition of reciprocal fidelity; a conſtruction which appears founded neither in expediency, nor in the terms of the vow, nor in the deſign of the legiſlature which preſcribed the marriage-rite. The way of conſidering the offence upon the footing of provocation and retaliation, is a childiſh trifling with words.

It has been controverted, whether adultery may be lawfully committed in war, with the enemies wives? The anſwer is in the negative, and the authoriſed practice of civilized nations is agreeable to this. It has alſo been a famous queſtion, whether it be lawful for a woman to commit adultery with the conſent of her huſband, and for the procuring ſome great good to him? St. Auſtin apparently allows of it; at leaſt, he does not condemn it.

It has likewiſe been a diſpute, whether it be lawful for one of the parties married to commit adultery, with the conſent of the other, for the ſake of having children? of which we have inſtances in Abraham, who, on this account, converſed with Hagar; and likewiſe among the Greeks and Romans. Polman, a German profeſſor, has a diſſertation on the huſband's right to alienate his wife's body to another's uſe.

It is much diſputed, whether adultery diſſolves the bond of matrimony, and be a ſufficient cauſe of divorce, ſo that the parties may marry again. This was allowed in the ancient church, and is ſtill continued in the Greek, as well as the Lutheran and Calviniſt churches. Romaniſts, however, diſallow of it, and the council of Trent even anathematized thoſe who maintain it; though the canon of anathematization was mitigated in deference to the republic of Venice, in ſome of whoſe dominions, as Zant, Cephalonia, &c. the contrary uſage obtains. The eccleſiaſtical courts in England ſo far agree with the Papiſts, that they only grant a divorce *a menſa et thoro*, in caſe of adultery; ſo that a complete divorce, to enable the parties to marry again, cannot be had without an act of parliament.

[The elegant Engravings given in this Number, are to be placed oppoſite the correſpondent pages in the annexed Hiſtory of the Wars of England; for which purpoſe proper directions will be given at the end of the Volume.]

POETRY.

POETRY.

The FIELD of BATTLE.

FAINTLY bray'd the battle's roar,
Diſtant, down the hollow wind;
Panting terror fled before,
Wounds and death were left behind.

The war-fiend curs'd the ſunken day
That check'd his fierce purſuit too ſoon;
While, ſcarcely lighting to the prey,
Low hung, and lour'd, the bloody moon:

The field, ſo late the hero's pride,
Was now with various carnage ſpread;
And floated with a crimſon tide,
That drench'd the dying and the dead!

O'er the ſad ſcene of drearieſt view,
Abandon'd all to horrors wild,
With frantic ſtep, Maria flew;
Maria, ſorrow's early child!

By duty led, for every vein
Was warm'd by hymen's pureſt flame;
With Edgar o'er the wintry main
She, lovely faithful wanderer, came.

For well ſhe thought a friend ſo dear
In darkeſt hours might joy impart;
Her warrior, faint with toil might chear,
Or ſoothe her bleeding warrior's ſmart.

Though look'd-for long—in chill affright,
(The torrent burſting from her eye,)
She heard the ſignal for the fight—
While her ſoul trembled in a ſigh—

She heard, and claſp'd him to her breaſt,
Yet ſcarce could urge th'inglorious ſtay;
His manly heart the charm confeſt—
Then broke the charm and ruſh'd away!

Too ſoon, in few but deadly words,
Some flying ſtraggler breath'd to tell,
That, in the foremoſt ſtrife of ſwords,
The young, the gallant, Edgar fell!

She preſs'd to hear—ſhe caught the tale—
At ev'ry ſound her blood congeal'd!—
With terror bold—with terror pale,
She ſprung to ſearch the fatal field:

O'er the ſad ſcene, in dire amaze,
She went—with courage not her own—
On many a corpſe ſhe caſt her gaze—
And turn'd her ear to many a groan!

Drear anguiſh urged her to preſs
Full many a hand, as wild ſhe mourn'd:
Of comfort glad, the drear careſs
The damp, chill, dying, hand return'd.

Her ghaſtly hope was well nigh fled—
When, late, pale Edgar's form ſhe found,
Half buried with the hoſtile dead,
And bor'd with many a griſly wound:

She knew—ſhe ſunk—the night-bird ſcream'd,
The moon withdrew her troubled light,
And left the fair, tho' fall'n ſhe ſeem'd,
To worſe than death—and deepeſt night!

THE HARE-HUNT.

From Dibdin's "Caſtles in the Air."

SINCE Zeph'rus firſt taſted the charms of coy Flora,
Sure nature ne'er beam'd on ſo lovely a morn;
Ten thouſand ſweet birds court the ſmiles of Aurora,
And the woods loudly echo the ſound of the horn.
Yet the morn's not ſo lovely, ſo brilliant, ſo gay,
As our ſplendid appearance in gallant array,
When all ready-mounted we number our forces,
Enough the wild boar and the tiger to ſcare:
Pity fifty ſtout beings, count dogs, men, and horſes,
Should encounter ſuch perils—to kill one poor hare.

Little wretch, thy fate's hard; thou wert gentle and blameleſs,
Yet a type of the world in thy fortune we ſee;
And virtue, by monſters as cruel and ſhameleſs,
Poor, defenceleſs, and timid, is hunted like thee.
See vainly each path how ſhe doubles and tries!
If ſhe 'ſcape the hound Treach'ry, by Slander ſhe dies.
To o'ercome that meek fear for which men ſhould reſpect her,
Ev'ry art is employ'd, ev'ry ſly ſubtle ſnare:
Pity thoſe that were born to defend and protect her
Shou'd hunt to her ruin—ſo timid a hare.

Thus it fares with poor merit, which mortals ſhould cheriſh,
As the heav'n-gifted ſpark that illumines the mind,

As reaſon's beſt honour, leſt with it ſhould periſh
Ev'ry grace that perfection can lend to mankind.
Hark, Envy's pack opens: the grim lurcher Fear
And the mongrel Vexation ſkulk ſly in the rear;
The reſt all ruſh on, at their head the whelp Slander,
The fell maſtiff Malice, the greyhound Deſpair:
Pity beings beſt known by bright truth and fair candour
Should hunt down, ſhame to mankind, —ſo harmleſs a hare.

Their ſports at an end, harſh reflection's beguiler
To ſome thoughtleſs oblivion their ſouls they reſign;
The ſeducer takes pleaſure; revenge the reviler;
The hunter's oblivion, more harmleſs, is wine.
Thus, having deſtroy'd ev'ry rational joy
That can dignify reaſon, they reaſon deſtroy:
And yet not in vain, if this leſſon inſpirit
Aught of rev'rence for genius, reſpect for the fair:
So the tear of loſt virtue and poor ruin'd merit
The ſad manes ſhall appeaſe—of the innocent hare.

Liberty renders England preferable to other Nations, notwithſtanding Taxes.

'TIS liberty alone that gives the flow'r
Of fleeting life its luſtre and perfume,
And we are weeds without it. All conſtraint,
Except what wiſdom lays on evil men,
Is evil; hurts the faculties, impedes
Their progreſs in the road of ſcience; blinds
The eye-ſight of diſcovery, and begets,
In thoſe that ſuffer it, a ſordid mind,
Beſtial, a meagre intellect, unfit
To be the tenant of man's noble form.
Thee therefore ſtill, blame-worthy as thou art,
With all thy loſs of empire, and though ſqueez'd
By public exigence till annual food
Fails for the craving hunger of the ſtate,
Thee I account ſtill happy, and the chief
Among the nations, ſeeing thou art free!
My native nook of earth! thy clime is rude,
Replete with vapours, and diſpoſes much
All hearts to ſadneſs, and none more than mine;
Thine unadult'rate manners are leſs ſoft
And plauſible than ſocial life requires,
And thou haſt need of diſcipline and art
To give thee what politer France receives
From nature's bounty—that humane addreſs
And ſweetneſs, without which no pleaſure is
In converſe, either ſtarv'd by cold reſerve,
Or flush'd with fierce diſpute, a ſenſeleſs brawl;
Yet, being free, I love thee. For the ſake
Of that one feature, can be well content,
Diſgrac'd as thou haſt been, poor as thou art,
To ſeek no ſublunary reſt beſide.
But once enſlav'd, farewel! I could endure
Chains no where patiently; and chains at home,
Where I am free by birthright, not at all.
Then what were left of roughneſs in the grain
Of Britiſh natures, wanting its excuſe
That it belongs to freemen, would diſguſt
And ſhock me. I ſhould then with double pain
Feel all the rigour of thy fickle clime;
And, if I muſt bewail the bleſſing loſt
For which our Hampdens and our Sidneys bled,
I would at leaſt bewail it under ſkies
Milder, among a people leſs auſtere,
In ſcenes which, having never known me free,
Would not reproach me with the loſs I felt.

ENIGMATICAL LIST of YOUNG LADIES in SOUTHAMPTON.

1 A SORT of bread, a vowel, and what we tread on every day.
2 Three fourths of a warning machine, and half of paſſable.
3 A tree and a vowel.
4 A kind of mountain.
5 Three fourths of to be on horſeback, and four ſixths of riding.
6 The king of Baſan, and half the reverſe of more.

ENIGMATICAL LIST of TOWNS and VILLAGES in HAMPSHIRE.

1 THREE fourths of a liquor much uſed, four fifths of a box, and the reverſe of mild.
2 Alſo and above.
3 Three fourths of a wound, and a houſe of entertainment for travellers changing a letter.
4 Four fifths of the reverſe of north, four ſixths of a baſket, and a large caſk.
5 The firſt and laſt letters of a cobler's inſtrument, and a caſk holding more than a gallon.
6 Our Saviour and God's houſe.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

From the LONDON GAZETTE.

WHITEHALL, *March* 16.

THE following are extracts of a letter from Major-general Williamſon to the right honourable Henry Dundas, one of his Majeſty's principal Secretaries of State, and of one incloſed therein from Lieutenant-colonel Whitelock, received this morning.

Extract of a Letter from Major-general Adam Williamſon to the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, dated King's Houſe, Jamaica, Feb. 9, 1794.

I have the honour to ſend herewith an extract of a letter from Colonel Whitelocke, with the particulars of the capture of Cape Tiberon. The buſineſs was ſpirited and well done.

This poſt is of the utmoſt importance; it ſecures the paſſage, and, with Cape Nichola Mole, commands that fine extenſive bay.

It has alſo driven the Brigands as far back as Aux Cayes, which leaves the pariſhes of the Grand Ance in the moſt perfect ſecurity.

The trade between this iſland and St. Domingue is already prodigious; and the quantity of produce brought here will, I hope, on its arrival in Great Britain, add conſiderably to the revenue.

Extract of a Letter from Lieutenant-colonel Whitelocke, of the 13*th Regiment, commanding at Jeremie, to Major-general Williamſon, dated Europa, off Tiberon, Feb.* 3, 1794.

The commodore and his ſquadron called at Jeremie on the morning of the 31ſt ultimo: the troops were immediately embarked, and the whole ſailed in the evening.

We did not arrive off Tiberon till the evening of the 2d, when three frigates anchored near to the ſhore, in the Ance du Mitau.

The enemy were ſtrong, and ſeemed to wait our landing; but, after a few broadſides from the ſhips, the beach appeared to be clear, and juſt before dark I ordered the flank companies to land, and take poſſeſſion of a houſe about 150 paces from the beach, and well ſituated for defence, and to protect the landing of the whole.

Major Spencer commanded the flank companies, and was not annoyed till the moment the boats grounded, when the Brigands appeared in line on the beach, and fired on the troops, who, by the Major's orders, were on ſhore in an inſtant, charged, and in a minute routed the enemy and ſurrounded the poſt.

I landed at day-light with the 13th and 20th, the marines and Britiſh legion, and found that the Brigands had evacuated all the poſts, and eſcaped towards Aux Cayes, by the mountain road, without burning or deſtroying property of any deſcription.

The numbers of the enemy were about 650 blacks and 200 mulattoes and whites, very ſtrongly poſted. About 150 more ſurrendered themſelves, and remain.—I underſtand 50 of them were killed and wounded.

I have only to add on this ſubject, that the conduct of Major Spencer was highly honourable to him, and he was handſomely ſupported by the officers and men of the flank companies.

I have left Lieutenant Baſkerfield to command, with 50 men of the 13th, the colonial troops, and Jean Kino's corps from Irois.

The poſt of Irois being no longer neceſſary, I have directed it to be diſmantled.

The enemy are now ſhut out of our poſſeſſions, there being no poſt of conſequence within 60 miles of Tiberon.

Return of the Killed and Wounded at the Attack of Cape Tiberon, Feb. 3.

13th regiment. 2 privates killed; 1 captain, 1 ſubaltern, 1 volunteer, and 2 privates, wounded.

20th regiment. 1 ſerjeant, and 4 privates, wounded.

49th, light infantry. 1 private, killed; 1 private wounded.

Total. 3 privates killed; 1 captain, 1 ſubaltern, 1 volunteer, 1 ſerjeant, and 7 privates, wounded.

N. B. Hon. Captain Colvil of the 13th regiment, wounded ſlightly in the leg; Lieutenant Dana of the 13th light infantry, wounded in the hand, but not dangerouſly; Volunteer Dolphina, dangerouſly wounded.

Return of Ordnance taken at Cape Tiberon, Feb. 3.

18 Eighteen-pounders.
4 Six or eight-pounders.
1 Field-piece, four pounder.
2 Field-pieces, three-pounders.

The magazine complete with every deſcription of ammunition.

A. WILLIAMSON.

ARANJUEZ, *March* 10.

HER Catholic majeſty was this afternoon ſafely delivered of a prince.

WHITEHALL, *April* 5.

Extract of a letter from his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, to the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, dated St. Amand, April 1*ſt.*

SATURDAY morning the enemy attacked the advanced poſts of the prince of Cobourg's army near Cateau, in conſiderable force. At firſt they obliged the Auſtrians to retire, and to abandon three villages in their front; but, upon the battalions appointed for the ſupport of the out-poſt moving forwards, the enemy were beaten back, with the loſs of upwards of 500 men killed, and 60 priſoners, with five pieces of cannon. The loſs of the Auſtrians, in killed and wounded, amounted to about 120 men. Since this every thing has been quiet.

TOURNAY, *April* 2. We are aſſured that the day after the affair of Cateau there was another action, in which our troops took four pieces of cannon. Fifteen hundred perſons have put down their names to guard our city and magazines during the abſence of the troops.

WHITEHALL, *April* 12.

Extract of a Letter from his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York to the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, dated St. Amand, April 8.

I HAVE received this morning a report from Count Walmoden, that the enemy, having ſucceeded in ſurpriſing the Heſſian poſts at Tenbreuil, between Werwick and Ypres, got behind the Hanoverian pickets, and cut them off. Succour, however, having arrived from Menin, the enemy was driven back, and forced to re-croſs the Lyſs, and to deſtroy the bridge they had made. Our loſs was one man killed, one officer and 7 men wounded, and 3 officers and 143 men taken priſoners,

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WEST INDIES.

BARBADOES, *February* 10.

DISPATCHES from Sir John Jervis, K. B. commander in chief of his majeſty's naval forces upon the expedition againſt Martinico, dated the 8th inſt. to his honour the preſident, mention, that the fleet under command of Sir John arrived in Bay Marin on the evening of the 5th inſt. and that Sir Charles Grey landed with the troops early the next morning, and there was reaſon to believe General Dundas made good his landing a few hours ſooner.

Sir Charles Grey took poſt at la Riviere Salée before dark, without any other loſs than a ſerjeant of the 9th regiment, who, having juſt recovered of a fever, ſunk through fatigue.

Brigadier-general White ſeparated from Sir Charles on the march, to take poſſeſſion of Ance d'Arlet, the Grande Ance, Fort Solomon, and the heights which commanded Iſlet aux Ramiers.

Soon after the march of the army, Captain Rogers, having a ſquadron of frigates and tranſports with Sir Charles Gordon's brigade, ſailed for Caſe Navire, with a view to operate on that ſide, and to awe St. Pierre. By reports of Americans and deſerters, Rochambeau was employed, while our army was in motion, in exertions to perſuade the mulattoes and negroes in the quarter of St. Anne to go into fort Bourbon, and the admiral had reaſon to think with very little ſucceſs.

At eight o'clock on the morning of the 7th, the admiral diſpatched the Nautilus ſloop of war, with two ordnance tranſports, and two victuallers, for the ſupport of the troops under Brigadier-general White, who, after a very ſevere march, and ſome attack of poſts, &c. arrived in the rear of Cape Solomon battery and Cape Bourg, where the preſident has the happineſs to inform the public, the brigadier ſoon hoiſted the Britiſh flag, and meant to attack the poſts which intervened between Cape Solomon and Pigeon-Iſland.

On the morning of the 8th inſt. Cape Solomon battery and Cape Bourg were taken without any loſs whatever. Brigadier-general White informs, that Sir Charles Grey had arrived at Lametin, and that the enemy had taken poſt oppoſite to the Iſlet des Ramiers, where the brigadier intended to attack them as ſoon as he received his artillery, which the admiral acquaints the preſident reached him early enough to anſwer all his purpoſes.

The inhabitants of the quarter in which the Bay Marin is, come in very faſt, and report that La Trinité was in poſſeſſion of Major-general Dundas.

February 17. Diſpatches received this day from Martinico, dated Boyne, Fort Royal Bay, Feb. 15, from Admiral Sir John Jervis, commander in chief of his majeſty's naval forces, &c. to his honour the preſident, give the following important information:

On the 8th inſtant Sir John detached the Irreſiſtible from Bay Marin, to co-operate with Brigadier-general White, at Ance d'Arlet, and the admiral himſelf followed in the Boyne next morning, leaving Captain Nugent, in the Veteran, to protect the ordnance ſtore-ſhips, victuallers, and tranſports, in Bay Marin. The ſeamen of the Boyne and Irreſiſtible carried the artillery and ſtores neceſſary for the reduction of Iſlet aux Ramiers, four and an half miles of the moſt rugged and mountainous road imaginable, under an inceſſant fire of a numerous artillery of mor-

mortars, howitzers, and guns, by which a few gallant ſeamen and artilleriſts were killed, and ſome officers and men wounded. On the 10th, at night, the batteries were completed, and at day-light opened upon Iſlet aux Ramiers; and, after about four hours firing, the iſland ſurrendered to his majeſty's arms, and was taken poſſeſſion of by Lieutenant Rogers, (by order of Sir C. Grey, who was then preſent,) with 50 ſeamen of the Boyne, and about 50 marines and 25 artillery-men.

Fort Bourbon and Fort Royal are completely inveſted; the tranſports, ordnance ſtore-ſhips, and victuallers, were, when the diſpatches came away, working into the cod of Fort Royal Bay, where there is a good wharf at no great diſtance from the height of Bruno, where General Preſcot commands, and at which place, as well as Caſe Navire, every exertion was to be made to land the battering train.

February 22. In diſpatches which were laſt night received by the preſident from Sir J. Jervis, Fort Royal Bay, Feb. 19, his honour is informed that St. Pierre was carried at three o'clock in the morning of the 17th, with very little loſs in numbers, except the irreparable one of Colonel Campbell, than whom a better and braver man never exiſted.

February 24. It is now reported here, that Fort Royal is taken. Two French frigates, and ſeveral other ſhips, are in Fort Royal harbour, which is effectually blocked up by the Boyne man of war.

FRANCE.

PARIS, *March* 25.

ON the 21ſt inſtant, Hebert, Ronſin, Momora, Vincent, Du Croquet, Kocq, a Dutchman, Col. Laumur, M. M. Bourgeois, Mazuel, La Boureau, Ancard, Le Clerc, Proly, Desfieux, Anacharſis Cloots, Pereira, Florent, Armand, Deſcombles, Dubuiſon, and the wife of General Quitineau, were brought before the Revolutionary Tribunal, charged with a conſpiracy againſt the ſtate.

The following is an extract of the act of accuſation, which runs to very conſiderable length:—"After a very ſtrict examination, partly by private interrogatories of the priſoners, as well as by written documents, it appears that there never exiſted a more horrid conſpiracy againſt the ſovereignty of the people—a conſpiracy which was extended in a variety of ways, and from which the moſt dreadful conſequences muſt have enſued, had not the moſt active vigilance of the convention counteracted it, by unmaſking and delivering up to juſtice thoſe who ſeemed to be the principal inſtruments of it. This execrable conſpiracy was directed by individuals who had cheated the nation by a ſpecious pretext of patriotiſm. Their object was to annihilate the ſovereignty of the people, and the liberty of Frenchmen, and to re-eſtabliſh deſpotiſm and tyranny, by uſing all their means to deprive the people of ſubſiſtencies, and to maſſacre the moſt zealous repreſentatives of the people. The national repreſentation was to have been annihilated, and was to have diſappeared with the repreſentatives of the people, who were to have fallen under the poignards of theſe conſpirators, for the unpardonable crime of having courageouſly fought to ſupport the rights of the people.

"The Engliſh government, and the powers combined againſt the republic, are the true heads of this conſpiracy, the perfidious agents of which were maſked under the cloak of hypocriſy, and clothed with the public authority, which they had uſurped. Heaped with their favours; elevated for the moſt part of them, to public functions, ſuch as Roſin, Hebert, Momoro, and Vincent; foreign bankers and generals were the intermediate perſons between the chiefs and their agents, who wiſhed only to gain honours and places to ſatisfy their ambition; and whoſe debaucheries were fed by the gold of tyrants. This meditated conſpiracy had, for a long time, all the appearance of patriotiſm, and approached to its execution in the very moment when it was diſcovered. It was theſe factions which excited troubles and wants, to compaſs the deſtruction of the republican government. It appears that the chiefs of the conſpirators held their nocturnal meetings at the houſe of the Dutch banker Kocq at Paſſy; that there, having planned their criminal revolt, they delivered themſelves up to all ſorts of iniquitous orgies. It appears that each of them had his part aſſigned him. Ronſin and Mazuel were to go about Paris, armed with their authority, and ſearch the houſes of arreſt, where they took liſts of the priſoners in order to diſcover who beſt could fit their purpoſe. We ſee Hebert and Vincent ſometimes denouncing bad citizens—ſometimes the moſt zealous defenders of the people, to miſlead the public opinion, and to confound in one common ruin the national repreſentation, and the good patriots, to whom the ſcarcity of proviſions was attributed. In ſhort, we ſee theſe conſpirators vilifying the members of the committee of public ſafety and public welfare, and demanding a re-election of the national repreſentation."

They were all convicted, and ſuffered death this morning, except La Boureau, who was acquitted.

INDIA

INDIA BUDGET.

HOUSE OF COMMONS, APRIL 4.

THE order for the going into a committee on the different papers and accounts before the houſe, relative to the finances of India, was read; on the queſtion for the ſpeaker's leaving the chair being put,

General Smith took the opportunity to obſerve, that, on an occaſion ſimilar to the preſent in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, he had repreſented the calamitous ſituation of a great number of the oldeſt and moſt reſpectable officers in the Bengal army to the right hon. gentleman, who then ſaid, that Lord Cornwallis was expected ſhortly to come home, and that, when he had arrived, an arrangement in favour of thoſe unfortunate gentlemen ſhould be deviſed. He now roſe to aſk the right hon. gentleman, if any, and what, ſteps had been taken in that affair.

Mr. Secretary Dundas agreed with the hon. gentlemen, that the ſituation of the gentlemen alluded to merited every attention, and accordingly that the noble marquis had been indefatigably employed in examining the buſineſs; and he hoped, that ſpeedily ſuch an arrangement would be formed, as would remove the alternative from thoſe gentlemen of "either ſtarving at home or dying abroad."

The queſtion being put and carried, the houſe reſolved into a committee, Mr. Beaufoy in the chair.

Mr. Secretary Dundas roſe, and, in a ſpeech of conſiderable length, laid before the committee a ſtatement of the very important, but at the ſame time complicated and various, accounts before them, relative to the finances of India. He obſerved, that he had given ſuch gentlemen as were intereſted in thoſe concerns a full opportunity to make themſelves maſters of thoſe accounts, to which he preſſed their attention; and he could not avoid taking notice, that thoſe gentlemen who, two or three ſeſſions back, were very attentive to his ſtatements, and not backward in attempting to diſprove them, had latterly either not attended the committee, or had not favoured him with their obſervations on the ſubject.

He was alſo about the ſame period frequently honoured with anonymous and other correſpondence, relative to his budget, but of late theſe perſons were ſilent; from which he muſt infer, that their ſilence proceeded, not only from their own internal conviction that his ſtatements were unobjectionable, but on account of their beholding the moſt palpable demonſtrations of them, founded on the incontrovertible evidence of figures.—Of the truth of what he laid down in the preſent inſtance, he flattered himſelf, that he ſhould, as he had hitherto done, bring forward ſuch a ſatisfactory ſtatement to the committee, as to juſtify the various arrangements he intended to propoſe on the occaſion.

He then launched out into a diffuſe and minute diſquiſition of the various and complicated ſyſtems of finance under the conſideration of the committee; his different ſtatements and calculations were drawn from the voluminous collection of papers then on the table.

In taking a review of the general incomes and expenditures of the different ſettlements, he calculated chiefly upon the average of three years, and on the double mode of eſtimate and actual receipt and expenditure: and, according to this, he ſtated the eſtimated revenues of the preſidency of Bengal, for the current year, to be about 5,104,950l. which ſum was exceeded by the actual collection, as it amounted to 5,526,934l. He then ſtated the particulars of the charges of this ſettlement according to the eſtimate and actual coſt, which he was happy in being able to ſtate fell ſhort of the revenues ſo far as to leave a balance in favour of the latter of about 2,550,000l.

He next adverted to the ſettlement of Madras; the eſtimated revenue of which was 2,458,000l. and was exceeded alſo by the actual collection, which amounted to 2,476,310l. He ſaid the charges of this preſidency were ſuch, as to fall ſhort of the revenue in a ſum of 520,000l.

With reſpect to what related to Bombay, he was ſorry he could not be ſo accurate as he wiſhed, on account of his not being furniſhed with documents later than 1792, except upon bare eſtimate. He ſtated what upon this conjectural ground were the revenue and the expenditure of this ſettlement; the latter in this inſtance, as is always the caſe, conſiderably exceeded the former. He then touched upon the charge of Bencoolen, the Prince of Wales's iſland, and the other ſmall dependencies of an Indian poſſeſſion, the whole of which he ſtated to amount to 77,000l.

Having dwelt upon theſe points with minuteneſs and preciſion, he proceeded

to

to take a view of the total amount of the incomes and expenditures of the different ſettlements; the former of which he ſtated to be 8,245,560l. and the latter 5,601,302l. leaving a ſurplus balance in favour of the revenues, in that view of the ſubject, of 2,644,258l.

But this ſurplus of 2,644,258l. he ſtated was liable to ſeveral deductions, the particulars of which he detailed to the committee; the drawbacks aroſe principally on account of the intereſt paid for the debts of the different preſidencies, the deduction accruing on account of the ſales, &c. the whole of which reduced the diſpoſable ſurplus of the revenues of India to a ſum rather exceeding two millions.

He then proceeded to take a copious and extenſive view of the collateral concerns of the company's finance, which conſiſted principally of its debts and aſſets in India and England; and, having dwelt for ſome time on the details of thoſe, he concluded this part of his ſubject with the ſatisfactory aſſurance, that in the courſe of the current year the company's affairs in theſe points were meliorated in no leſs a ſum than 1,669,000l. Reſpecting the ſales and inveſtments, together with the company's domeſtic arrangements, he was remarkably diffuſe, and contended that they afforded ſuch proſpects as to warrant him in ſaying, and the committee in being ſatisfied, that the proſperity of the company bid moſt fair to be permanent and ſecure.

GENERAL STATEMENT.

Revenues.	£.
Bengal Revenue for the laſt year	5,526,934
Madras Revenue	2,476,310
Bombay ditto	242,316
Total	8,245,560
Charges.	
Bengal Charges	2,956,068
Madras ditto	1,963,665
Bombay ditto	681,569
Total	5,601,302
Surplus of Revenues	2,644,258
Out of which is to be deducted,	
Supplies from Bengal to Bencoolen, St. Helena, &c.	74,184
The intereſt upon debts at Bengal	642,376
Which leaves a balance of	1,927,698
To this is to be added the amount received for the ſale of import-goods, &c.	489,389
Leaving a balance of	2,417,537

In the courſe of his ſpeech, the right hon. ſecretary paid ſome very elegant compliments to the conduct of Lord Cornwallis in India, both as a ſtateſman and ſoldier, the whole of which was ſuch as reflected equal luſtre on his wiſdom and integrity. He deſcribed the advantages which had attended the ſucceſsful termination of the noble marquis's career, in ſecuring to the Britiſh intereſts in India ſuch aggrandiſements, credit, and power, in the final extirpation of our old and inveterate European enemy in that quarter the French, and the humiliation of our late native enemy Tippoo; the ſucceſſes and good faith of the Britiſh muſt impreſs the other native princes of India with the moſt favourable ſentiments of us, and lay a laſting and ſecure foundation for the power and glory of the Britiſh empire in India.

He concluded by moving a ſtring of reſolutions reſpecting the finances and produce of the different parts of the Britiſh territories in India, calculated in the currency of that country, which were agreed to by the committee—and alſo the two following reſolutions:

1ſt, "That in the opinion of the committee it is expedient, that the Eaſt India company ſhould not be obliged to reduce their bonded debt under two millions ſterling."

And 2dly, "That the company be enabled, with the conſent of the board of controul, to raiſe the ſum of one million, over and above their preſent bond debt."

Theſe were agreed to by the committee; and the houſe, reſuming, ordered the report to be received.

April 10. When the report of the committee on the India Company's bond debt bill was preſented,

Mr. Francis took the opportunity to obſerve, that in his opinion the ſubſcribers to the late loan were not dealt fairly with by the miniſter, if he had not appriſed them, at the time of ſubſcribing, that it was in agitation ſpeedily to negociate for the loan, namely, that authoriſed by the preſent bill, and the ſum of a million, which was now raiſing for the government of Ireland.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer repliled, that the circumſtances alluded to by the hon. gentleman had not the moſt diſtant reference to either of the negociations he now mentioned.

Mr. Scott obſerved, that the preſent bill only went to empower the India Company to iſſue bonds to a certain amount, if neceſſary.

The report was then agreed to by the houſe, and the bill ordered to be engroſſed.

LIST

LIST of PRIZES, continued from Page 384.

THE Experiment, of London,——— maſter, bound from London and Middleburg to the coaſt of Africa, laden with various merchandiſe, was captured off Portland by the Inſurgente French frigate, of 44 guns, and ſoon after re-taken by the Phaeton, Hebe, Latona, and Southampton, frigates. The French frigate was in company with her prize when the above ſquadron fell in with them; and, whilſt the Southampton was employed in exchanging priſoners, the Phaeton, Hebe, and Latona, went in chace of the Inſurgente; and there ſeems the greateſt probability that they either took her or drove her a-ſhore on the French coaſt.

The ſhip Chriſtopher, Capt. Smith, belonging to Liverpool, has taken three veſſels laden with Weſt-India produce; and deſtroyed the Marſeillois, a French privateer, of 12 guns and 44 men, commanded by Michael Serle, belonging to Martinico.

The Experiment lugger, Lieut. George Hayes, has taken and ſent into the Downs a Swediſh ſhip laden with ſhip-timber, bound to France. This is the ſixth veſſel captured by the Experiment within a fortnight.

Forty-two veſſels have been taken by Sir John Jervis's fleet off Martinique.

Advice is received at the admiralty-office, that four French privateers, which have been cruizing in the chops of the Channel for ſome time, watching the motions of our ſhips, were all captured by his majeſty's cruizers and ſent into Scilly.

The Lady Taylor armed ſhip has taken de Jonge Pieter, deeply loaded, and carried her into Dover.

The Prince of Wales letter of marque, belonging to Liverpool, has taken and carried into Beaumaris the Two Siſters an American bark, under jury-maſts, from Philadelphia to Dunkirk, laden with wheat, &c. under French colours.

The New Brunſwick, Milne, has recaptured the Jenny of Cork, for Oporto, which had been taken by the Thames French frigate, who had taken twenty-eight veſſels that cruize.

PROMOTIONS.

ADMIRALTY OFFICE, *April* 11.

THE king has been pleaſed to appoint the hon. William Waldegrave, Tho. Pringle Eſq. and Sir Roger Curtis, Knt. to be colonels in his majeſty's marine forces, in the room of George Murray Eſq. Robert Linzee, Eſq. and Sir James Wallace, Knt. appointed flag-officers of his majeſty's fleet.

This day in purſuance of the king's pleaſure, the following flag-officers of his majeſty's fleet were promoted, viz.

Sir Peter Parker, Bart. hon. Samuel Barrington, and Rob. Roddam, admirals of the blue—to be admirals of the white.

Nicholas Vincent, Eſq. Sir Edward Vernon, Knt. Richard Edwards, Eſq. Tho. Graves, Eſq. Robert Digby, Eſq. Ben. Marlow, Eſq. Sir Alex. Hood, K. B. Sir Chaloner Ogle, Knt. right hon. Samuel Lord Hood, vice-admirals of the red—to be admirals of the blue.

Sir Rich. Hughes Bart. John Elliot Eſq. Wm. Hotham, Eſq. Joſeph Peyton Eſq. John Carter Allen Eſq. Sir Cha. Middleton, Bart. Sir John Laforey, Bart. and John Dalrymple, Eſq. vice-admirals of the white—to be vice-admirals of the red.

Herbert Sawyer, Eſq. Sir Rich. King, Bart. Jon. Faulknor, Eſq. Philip Affleck, Eſq. Sir John Jervis, K. B. Adam Duncan, Eſq. Rich. Brathwaite, Eſq. and Phillips Coſby, Eſq. vice-admirals of the blue—to be vice-admirals of the white.

Tho. Fitzherbert, Eſq. Sam. Corniſh, Eſq. John Briſbane, Eſq. Charles Wolſeley, Eſq. Sam. Granſton Goodall, Eſq. honourable Keith Stewart, and his royal highneſs William Henry Duke of Clarence, rear-admirals of the red—to be vice-admirals of the blue.

Rich. Onſlow, Eſq. Robert Kingſmill, Eſq. Sir George Collier, Knt. George Bowyer, Eſq. Sir Hyde Parker, Knt. Rowland Cotton, Eſq. Benj. Caldwell, Eſq. and the honourable Wm. Cornwallis, rear-admirals of the white—to be rear-admirals of the red.

Wm. Allen, Eſq. John Macbride, Eſq. and Geo. Vandeput, Eſq, rear-admirals of the blue—to be alſo rear-admirals of the red.

Cha. Buckner, Eſq. John Gell, Eſq. Wm. Dickſon, Eſq. and Alan Gardner, Eſq. rear-admirals of the blue—to be rear-admirals of the white.

The under-mentioned captains were alſo appointed flag-officers of his majeſty's fleet, viz.

John Lewis Gidoin, Eſq. George Gayton, Eſq. George Murray, (1ſt) Eſq. Robert Linzee, Eſq. Sir James Wallace, Knt. Wm. Peere Williams, Eſq. and Tho. Paſley, Eſq.—to be rear-admirals of the white.

John Symons, Eſq. Sir Tho. Rich, Bart. Cha. Thompſon, Eſq. Jas. Cumming, Eſq. John Ford, Eſq. John Colpoys, Eſq. Skeffington Lutwidge, Eſq. Archibald Dickſon, Eſq. George Montague, Eſq. Tho. Dumareſq, Eſq. and the hon. George Keith Elphinſtone—to be rear-admirals of the blue.

On the LOVE of our COUNTRY.

THE love of our country is one of the nobleſt paſſions that can warm and animate the human breaſt. It includes all the limited and particular affections to our parents, friends, neighbours, fellow-citizens, countrymen. It ought to direct and limit their more confined and partial actions within their proper and natural bounds, and never let them encroach on thoſe ſacred and firſt regards we owe to the great public to which we belong. Were we ſolitary creatures, detached from the reſt of mankind, and without any capacity of comprehending a public intereſt, or without affections leading us to deſire and purſue it, it would not be our duty to mind it, nor criminal to neglect it. But as we are parts of the public ſyſtem, and are not only capable of taking in large views of its intereſts, but by the ſtrongeſt affections connected with it, and prompted to take a ſhare of its concerns, we are under the moſt ſacred ties to proſecute its ſecurity and welfare with the utmoſt ardour, eſpecially in times of public danger. This love of our country does not import an attachment to any particular ſoil, climate, or ſpot of earth, where perhaps we firſt drew our breath, though thoſe natural ideas are often aſſociated with the moral ones, and, like external ſigns or ſymbols, help to aſcertain and bind them; but it imports an affection to that moral ſyſtem, or community, which is governed by the ſame laws and magiſtrates, and whoſe ſeveral parts are variouſly connected one with the other, and all united upon the bottom of a common intereſt. Perhaps indeed every member of the community cannot comprehend ſo large an object, eſpecially if it extends through large provinces, and over vaſt tracts of land; and ſtill leſs can he form ſuch an idea, if there is no public, i. e. if all are ſubject to the caprice and unlimited will of one man; but the preference the generality ſhew to their native country; the concern and longing after it which they expreſs when they have been long abſent from it; the labours they undertake and ſufferings they endure to ſave or ſerve it, and the peculiar attachment they have to their countrymen, evidently demonſtrate that the paſſion is natural, and never fails to exert itſelf when it is fairly diſengaged from foreign clogs, and is directed to its proper object. Wherever it prevails in its genuine vigour and extent, it ſwallows up all ſordid and ſelfiſh regards; it conquers the love of eaſe, power, pleaſure, and wealth; nay, when the amiable partialities of friendſhip, gratitude, private affection, or regards to a family, come in competition with it, it will teach us bravely to ſacrifice all, in order to maintain the rights, and promote or defend the honour and happineſs, of our country.

Reſignation and obedience to the laws and orders of the ſociety to which we belong are political duties neceſſary to its very being and ſecurity, without which it muſt ſoon degenerate into a ſtate of licentiouſneſs and anarchy. The welfare, nay, the nature, of civil ſociety, requires, that there ſhould be a ſubordination of orders, or diverſity of ranks and conditions in it;—that certain men, or orders of men, be appointed to ſuperintend and manage ſuch affairs as concern the public ſafety and happineſs;—that all have their particular provinces aſſigned them;—that ſuch a ſubordination be ſettled among them as none of them may interfere with another; and finally, that certain rules or common meaſures of action be agreed on, by which each is to diſcharge his duty to govern or be governed, and all may concur in ſecuring the order, and promoting the felicity, of the whole political body. Thoſe rules of action are the laws of the community; and thoſe different orders are the ſeveral officers or magiſtrates appointed by the public to explain them, and ſuperintend or aſſiſt in their execution. In conſequence of this ſettlement of things, it is the duty

duty of each individual to obey the laws enacted; to ſubmit to the executors of them with all due deference and homage, according to their reſpective ranks and dignity, as to the keepers of the public peace, and the guardians of public liberty; to maintain his own rank, and perform the functions of his own ſtation, with diligence, fidelity, and incorruption. The ſuperiority of the higher orders, or the authority with which the ſtate has inveſted them, intitle them, eſpecially if they employ their authority well, to the obedience and ſubmiſſion of the lower, and to a proportionable honour and reſpect from all. The ſubordination of the lower ranks claims protection, defence, and ſecurity, from the higher. And the laws, being ſuperior to all, require the obedience and ſubmiſſion of all, being the laſt reſort, beyond which there is no deciſion or appeal.

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Some there are that have their nerves conſtructed in ſuch a manner, that they cannot be affected by the ſounds which affect others, and ſome ſcarcely with any; while others have ſuch an irritability of the nerves in this caſe, that they cannot, without the greateſt difficulty, ſit or ſtand ſtill when they hear a favourite piece of muſic played.

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dancing.—There are even well-atteſted ſtories of ſome negroes flinging themſelves at the feet of an European playing on a fiddle, intreating him to deſiſt, unleſs he had a mind to tire them to death, it being impoſſible for them to ceaſe dancing while he continued playing."—The ſame thing is found to take place in America, though, as the inhabitants of that continent are found to be of a more fierce and barbarous nature than the African nations, their dances are ſtill more uncouth and barbarous than thoſe of the negroes. "In Mexico, (ſays Gallini,) they have alſo their dances and muſic, but in the moſt uncouth and barbarous ſtyle. For their ſymphony they have wooden drums, ſomething in form of a kettle-drum, with a kind of pipe or flageolet, made of a hollow cane or reed, but very grating to an European ear. It is obſerved they love every thing that makes a noiſe, how diſagreeable ſoever the ſound is. They will alſo hum over ſomething like a tune when they dance thirty or forty in a circle, ſtretching out their hands, and laying them on each others ſhoulders. They ſtamp and jump, and uſe the moſt antic geſtures for ſeveral hours, till they are heartily weary. And one or two of the company ſometimes ſtep out of the rings to make ſport for the reſt, by ſhewing feats of activity, throwing their lances up into the air, catching them again, bending backwards and ſpringing forwards with great agility."

The origin of dancing among the Greeks was moſt certainly the ſame as among all other nations; but, as they proceeded a certain length in civilization, their dances were of conſequence more regular and agreeable than thoſe of the more barbarous nations. They reduced dancing into a kind of regular ſyſtem; and had dances proper for exciting, by means of the ſympathy above-mentioned, any paſſion whatever in the minds of the beholders. In this way they are ſaid to have proceeded very great lengths, to us abſolutely incredible. At Athens, it is ſaid, that the dance of the Eumenides or Furies on the theatre had ſo expreſſive a character as to ſtrike the ſpectators with irreſiſtible terror: men grown old in the profeſſion of arms trembled; the multitude ran out; women with child miſcarried; people imagined they ſaw in earneſt thoſe terrible deities commiſſioned with the vengeance of heaven to purſue and puniſh crimes upon earth.

The Greeks had martial dances, which they reckoned to be very uſeful for keeping up the warlike ſpirit of their youth; but the Romans, though equally warlike with the Greeks, never had any thing of the kind.—This probably may be owing to the want of that romantic turn for which the Greeks were ſo remarkable. The Romans had no heroes among them, ſuch as Hercules, Achilles, or Ajax; nor does the whole Roman hiſtory furniſh an example of a general that made war after the manner of Alexander the Great. Though their ſoldiers were as valiant as ever the Greeks could pretend to be, the object with them was the honour of the republic, and not their own perſonal praiſe. Hence there was leſs fury, and much more cool deliberate valour, exerciſed by the Romans, than any other nation whatever. The paſſions of pride, reſentment, obſtinacy, &c. were excited in them, not by the mechanical means of muſic and dancing, but by being taught that it was their chief honour to fight for the republic. It does not however appear, that the Romans were at all leſs capable of being affected in this mechanical manner than the Greeks. When dancing was once introduced, it had the very ſame effects at Rome as at Athens.

Plato reduces the dances of the ancients to three claſſes. 1. The military dances, which tended to make the body robuſt, active, and well-diſpoſed for all the exerciſes of war. 2. The domeſtic dances, which had for their object an agreeable and innocent relaxation and amuſement. 3. The mediatorial dances, which were in uſe in expiations and ſacrifices.—Of military dances there were two ſorts: the gymnopedique dance, or the dance of children; and the enoplian, or armed dance. The Spartans had invented

the

the firſt for an early excitation of the courage of their children, and to lead them on inſenſibly to the exerciſe of the armed dance. This children's dance uſed to be executed in the public place. It was compoſed of two choirs; the one of grown men, the other of children; whence, being chiefly deſigned for the latter, it took its name. They were both of them in a ſtate of nudity. The choir of the children regulated their motions by thoſe of the men, and all danced at the ſame time, ſinging the poems of Thales, Alcman, and Dionyſodotus.—The enoplian or Pyrrhic was danced by young men armed cap-a-pee, who executed, to the ſound of the flute, all the proper movements either for attack or for defence. It was compoſed of four parts.—The firſt, the podiſm or footing; which conſiſted in a quick ſhifting motion of the feet, ſuch as was neceſſary for overtaking a flying enemy, or for getting away from him when an overmatch.—The ſecond part was the xiphiſm: this was a kind of mock-fight, in which the dancers imitated all the motions of combatants; aiming a ſtroke, darting a javelin, or dexterouſly dodging, parrying, or avoiding a blow or thruſt. The third part, called the komos, conſiſting in very high leaps or vaultings, which the dancers frequently repeated, for the better uſing themſelves occaſionally to leap over a ditch or ſpring over a wall. The tetracomos was the fourth and laſt part: this was a ſquare figure, executed by ſlow and majeſtic movements; but it is uncertain whether this was every where executed in the ſame manner.

Of all the Greeks, the Spartans were thoſe who moſt cultivated the Pyrrhic dance. Athenæus relates, that they had a law by which they were obliged to exerciſe their children at it from the age of five years. This warlike people conſtantly retained the cuſtom of accompanying their dances with hymns and ſongs. The following was ſung for the dance called trichoria, ſaid to be inſtituted by Lycurgus, and which had its name from its being compoſed of three choirs, one of children, another of young men, and the third of old. The old men opened the dance, ſaying, "In time paſt we were valiant." The young men anſwered, "We are ſo at preſent." "We ſhall be ſtill more ſo when our time comes," replied the chorus of children. The Spartans never danced but with real arms. In proceſs of time, however, other nations came to uſe only weapons of wood on ſuch occaſions. Nay, it was only ſo late as the days of Athenæus, who lived in the ſecond century, that the dancers of the Pyrrhic, inſtead of arms, carried only flaſks, ivy-bound wands, or reeds. But, even in Ariſtotle's days, they had begun to uſe thyrſuſes inſtead of pikes, and lighted torches in lieu of javelins and ſwords. With theſe torches they executed a dance called the conflagration of the world.

Of the dances for amuſement and recreation, ſome were but ſimply gambols, or ſportive exerciſes, which had no character of imitation, and of which the greater part exiſt to this day. The others were more complex, more agreeable, figured, and were always accompanied with ſinging. Among the firſt or ſimple ones was the aſcoliaſmus; which conſiſted in jumping, with one foot only, on bladders filled with air or wine, and rubbed on the outſide with oil. The dypodium was jumped with both feet cloſe. The kybeſleſis was what is called in this country the ſomerſet.—Of the ſecond kind was that called the wine-preſs, of which there is a deſcription in Longinus, and the Ionian dances: theſe laſt, in the original of their inſtitution, had nothing but what was decent and modeſt; but, in time, their movements came to be ſo depraved, as to be employed in expreſſing nothing but voluptuouſneſs, and even the groſſeſt obſcenity.

Among the ancients there were no feſtivals nor religious aſſemblies but what were accompanied with ſongs and dances. It was not held poſſible to celebrate any myſtery, or to be initiated, without the intervention of theſe two arts. In ſhort, they were looked upon to be ſo eſſential in theſe kinds of ceremonies, that to expreſs the crime of ſuch as were guilty of revealing

revealing the ſacred myſteries, they employed the word kheiſtæ, "to be out of the dance." The moſt ancient of theſe religious dances is the Bacceic; which was not only conſecrated to Bacchus, but to all the deities whoſe feſtival was celebrated with a kind of enthuſiaſm. The moſt grave and majeſtic was the hyporchematic: it was executed to the lyre, and accompanied with the voice. At his return from Crete, Theſeus inſtituted a dance at which he himſelf aſſiſted at the head of a numerous and ſplendid band of youths, round the altar of Apollo. The dance was compoſed of three parts; the ſtrophe, the antiſtrophe, and the ſtationary. In the ſtrophe, the movements were from the right to the left; in the antiſtrophe, from the left to the right. In the ſtationary, they danced before the altar; ſo that the ſtationary did not mean an abſolute pauſe or reſt, but only a more ſlow or grave movement. Plutarch is perſuaded, that in this dance there is a profound myſtery. He thinks, that by the ſtrophe is indicated the motion of the world from eaſt to weſt; by the antiſtrophe, the motion of the planets from the weſt to the eaſt; and by the ſtationary, the ſtability of the earth. To this dance Theſeus gave the name of geranos, or "the crane;" becauſe the figures which characteriſed it bore a reſemblance to thoſe deſcribed by cranes in their flight.

Of ſtage-dances, the Greeks were the firſt who united the dance to their tragedies and comedies; not indeed as making part of thoſe ſpectacles, but merely as an acceſſary. The Romans, as uſual, copied after the Greeks; but, in the reign of Auguſtus, they left their inſtructors far behind them. Two very extraordinary men made their appearance at that time: they invented a new ſpecies of entertainment, and carried it to an aſtoniſhing degree of perfection. Nothing was then talked of but the wonderful talents and amazing performances of Pylades and Bathylus, who were the firſt to introduce among the Romans what the French call the *ballet d'action*, wherein the performer is both actor and dancer.

Pylades undertook the hard taſk of repreſenting, with the aſſiſtance of the dance alone, ſtrong and pathetic ſituations. He ſucceeded perhaps beyond his own expectation, and may be called the father of that ſtyle of dancing which is known to us by the name of grave or ſerious pantomime.

Bathylus an Alexandrian, and a freedman of Mecenas, took upon himſelf to repreſent ſuch ſubjects as required a certain livelineſs and agility. He was handſome in his perſon; and the two great ſcourges of Roman follies, Perſius and eſpecially Juvenal, ſpeak of him as the gallant of every woman in Rome. The latter, in his cynic ſtyle, even goes ſo far as to ſay, that when Bathylus performed the dance called, after the name of a celebrated female dancer, Chiromenos-Leda, the graveſt matron was turned off her guard, and the young virgin longed for the dancer's addreſſes.

Nature had been exceſſively partial to thoſe two men. They were endowed with genius, and all the exterior charms that could captivate the eye. By their ſtudy, application, and the deſire to eſtabliſh a laſting reputation, they diſplayed to the greateſt advantage all the reſources which the art of dancing could ſupply. Theſe, like two phenomena, diſappeared, and never did the world ſee "their like again." Government withdrew its protection; the art gradually ſunk into obſcurity, and became even entirely forgotten on the acceſſion of Trajanus to the empire.

Thus, buried with the other arts in entire oblivion, dancing remained uncultivated till about the 15th century, when ballets were revived in Italy at a magnificent entertainment given by a nobleman of Lombardy at Tortona on account of the marriage between Galeas Duke of Milan and Iſabella of Arragon. Every reſource that poetry, muſic, dancing, and machinery, could ſupply, was employed and exhauſted on the occaſion. The deſcription given of ſo ſuperb and an entertainment excited the admiration of all Europe, and called up the emulation of ſeveral men of genius, who improved the hint to introduce among their

their countrymen a kind of ſpectacle equally pleaſing and novel.

It would ſeem, however, that at firſt the women had no ſhare in the public or theatrical dance; at leaſt we do not ſee them mentioned in the various entertainments given at the opera in Paris till the 21ſt of January 1681, when the then Dauphineſs, the Princeſs of Conti, and ſome other ladies of the firſt diſtinction in the court of Louis XIV. performed a ballet with the opera called *Le Triomphe de l'Amour*. This union of the two ſexes ſerved to enliven and render the ſpectacle more pleaſing and more brilliant than it ever was at any other period. It was received with ſo much applauſe, that on the 16th of May following, when the ſame opera was acted in Paris at the theatre of the Palais Royal, it was thought indiſpenſable for the ſucceſs of that kind of entertainment to introduce female dancers. They have continued ever ſince to be the principal ſupport of the opera.

The dance is now in ſuch commendation, that, particularly in France, the opera-houſe ſeems rather an academy for dancing than calculated for the repreſentation of lyric poems. The diſguſting and immoderate length of their recitatives is one of the chief cauſes of that general taſte for dancing which prevails amongſt them. A wit being aſked one day what could be done to keep up an opera threatened with a moſt complete damnation? "Do! (ſays he;) why, lengthen, the dances and ſhorten the petticoats." So evident it is, that ſinging, though apparently the chief purpoſe of an opera, is by no means the moſt pleaſing part of the entertainment for the ſpectators.

Thus, what was at firſt introduced as a mere acceſſary to the muſical performance, became in proceſs of time its only ſupport; and this circumſtance excited the emulation of ſeveral eminent ballet-maſters. The art, however, of compoſing thoſe grand dances, which are now ſo much admired, was for many yeas in a ſtate of infancy, till Monſieur Noverre ſtept forth and gave it that degree of perfection which it ſeems impoſſible to exceed. This celebrated ballet-maſter and performer, in a work lately publiſhed, has with great elegance and ingenuity delineated the nature, objects, and powers, of dancing, enumerated the proper requiſites to give it effect, and ſhewn how much it may be ennobled by an acquaintance with the kindred arts.

Ballets, he obſerves, have hitherto been the faint ſketch only of what they may be one day. An art entirely ſubſervient, as this is, to taſte and genius, may receive daily variation and improvements. Hiſtory, painting, mythology, poetry, all join to raiſe it from that obſcurity in which it lies buried; and it is truly ſurpriſing, that compoſers have hitherto diſdained ſo many valuable reſources. According to our author, the reaſon why this art has remained ſo long in its infancy, is becauſe its effects have been reſtrained to the tranſitory ones of fire-works calculated only to pleaſe the eye; and it never was ſuppoſed to have powers ſufficient to ſpeak to the heart: whereas it may vie, he ſays, with the beſt dramatic pieces, prove equally intereſting, and captivate the ſpectator by the charms of the moſt complete illuſion.

"If ballets, therefore," ſays he, "are for the moſt part unintereſting and uniformly dull; if they fail in the characteriſtic expreſſion which conſtitutes their eſſence, the defect does not originate from the art itſelf, but ſhould be aſcribed to the artiſts. Are then the latter to be told that dancing is an imitative art? I am indeed inclined to think that they know it not, ſince we daily ſee the generality of compoſers ſacrifice the beauties of the dance, and give up the graceful naiveté of ſentiment, to become the ſervile copyiſts of a certain number of figures, known and hackneyed for above a century; ſo that the ballets of Phaeton, or of any ancient opera, revived by a modern compoſer, would prove ſo very ſimilar to former ones, that one would think they have undergone no alteration, and are the ſame in every ſtep.

"Ballet-maſters ſhould conſult the productions of the moſt eminent painters. This would bring them nearer

to nature, and induce them to avoid, as often as poſſible, that ſymmetry of figures, which, by repeating the object, preſent two different pictures on one and the ſame canvas. Thoſe ſymmetrical figures from right to left, according to my judgment, are ſupportable only in the entrées, which are not meant to expreſs any thing in particular, but are only calculated to afford ſome relief to the principal dancers. They may be introduced in a general dance at the concluſion of an entertainment; they may alſo be admitted in the pas of four, ſix, &c. though in my opinion it is ridiculous even in this caſe to prefer the diſplay of bodily ſtrength and agility to expreſſion and ſentiment. But ſuch figures muſt give way to nature in what we term *ballets d'action*. An inſtance, though perhaps not very forcible, may ſerve to elucidate and ſupport my argument.

"At the ſudden and unexpected appearance of ſome young fauns, a troop of nymphs take themſelves to flight with equal affright and precipitation. The former are in purſuit of the latter with that eagerneſs which the very hope of pleaſure can inſpire. Now they ſtop to obſerve what impreſſion they have made on the nymphs; theſe at the ſame time, and for a ſimilar reaſon, check their career; with fear they ſurvey their purſuers, endeavour to gueſs at their intentions, and provide for a retreat to ſome ſpot where they may reſt ſecure from the dangers that threaten them. Both troops now join, the nymphs reſiſt, defend themſelves, and at laſt effect their eſcape with no leſs ſwiftneſs than dexterity.

"This I call a buſy active ſcene, in which the dance, as it were, ſhould ſpeak with energy. Here ſtudied and ſymmetrical figures cannot be introduced, without a manifeſt violation of the truth, without deſtroying the rules of probability, and without weakening the action and leſſening the effect.—This ſcene ſhould be conſpicuous; for its beautiful diſorder, and the art of the compoſer, muſt here be the handmaid of nature.

"A ballet-maſter, devoid of taſte and diſcernment, will make of this a mechanical piece of dancing, and thus deprive it of the effect it was calculated to produce for want of entering into the ſpirit of it. His nymphs and fauns will be arranged upon a parallel line; he will place the former in attitudes aukwardly uniform, and inſiſt on the latter holding up their arms to an even altitude; rather than deviate from the beaten path, and the antique rules of opera-dancing, he will cautiouſly avoid to have, on the right and left, his nymphs placed in unequal numbers, but will reduce a ſcene of action, which ought to be ſupported with ſpirit, to an exerciſe equally affected and unintereſting.

"Perhaps ſome ill-diſpoſed critics, ſo far ſtrangers to the art as not to judge of it from its various effects, will maintain, that the above ſcene ſhould preſent only two different objects, the one pourtrayed in the love-ſick fauns, the other expreſſed by the affright of the nymphs. But how many ſhades may ſerve to embelliſh thoſe pictures? how varied may be the ſtrokes of the pencil? how oppoſite the lights? and what a number of tints ought to be employed in order to draw from this two-fold ſituation a multiplicity of images, each more lively and ſpirited than the other?

"As all men ſhare the ſame paſſions, and theſe differ in proportion to their ſenſations and feelings, they may therefore be worked upon more or leſs powerfully in proportion as they manifeſt themſelves outwardly with more or leſs force and impetuoſity. This principle once acknowledged, and nature indeed inforces it daily, it would certainly be more to the purpoſe to diverſify the attitudes and vary the expreſſion; for then the pantomime action of each perſonage would be diveſted of a diſguſting uniformity. The truth of imitation and the ſkill of the painter would conſpicuouſly appear in giving a different aſpect to the features, ſome of them expreſſing a kind of ferocity, others betraying leſs eagerneſs, theſe caſting a more tender look; and to the reſt, the languiſhing air of voluptuouſneſs. The ſketch of this firſt picture naturally leads to the compoſition of the ſecond: here ſome nymphs

nymphs appear divided between fear and deſire; there ſome others expreſs by the contraſt of their attitudes the various emotions of their ſoul. Some are more ſcornful than their companions, whilſt others betray a curioſity equal to their fears. This enſemble gives life to the whole picture, and is the more pleaſing that it is perfectly conſiſtent with nature. From this expoſition, you will not heſitate to agree with me, that ſymmetry, the offspring of art itſelf, ſhould never find place in the *ballets d'action*.

"I ſhall beg leave to enquire of all thoſe who reaſon from habitual prejudice, whether they will look for their favourite ſymmetry in a herd of ſheep flying from the wolf, or amongſt wretched peaſants leaving their huts and fields, in order to ſhelter themſelves from the fury of a party of enemies? By no means. But the art lies in concealing art itſelf; my aim is by no means to introduce diſorder and confuſion; on the contrary, I will have regularity even in irregularity. What I moſt inſiſt on is, the introducing of well-concerted groups, ſituations forcibly expreſſed, but never beyond nature, and, above all, a certain eaſe in the compoſition, which betrays not the labour of the compoſer. As for the figures, they are likely to pleaſe only in proportion as they quickly ſucceed each other, and are deviſed with equal taſte and elegance."

A ballet perfect in all its parts, our author proceeds to obſerve, is a picture drawn from life, of the manners, dreſſes, ceremonies, and cuſtoms, of all nations. It muſt therefore be a complete pantomime, and through the eyes ſpeak, as it were, to the very ſoul of the ſpectator. If it wants expreſſion, if it be deficient in point of ſituation and ſcenery, it degenerates into a ſpectacle equally flat and monotone.

According to Plutarch, a ballet is, if the expreſſion may be allowed, a mute converſation, or a ſpeaking and animated picture, whoſe language conſiſts of motions, figures, and geſtures. Theſe figures, ſays our author, are entirely unlimited in their number, becauſe there are a thouſand things that the ballet may expreſs. Phrynicus, one of the oldeſt tragedy writers, ſays, that he could find in our ballet as many figures as the ſea rolls waves in a high winter tide.

A well-compoſed ballet, therefore, may do without the aſſiſtance of words: M. Noverre even remarks that theſe only ſerve to weaken the action, and partly deſtroy its effects. He has no opinion of a pantomime which, in order to be underſtood, muſt borrow the help of a verbal explanation: "Any ballet whatever (ſays he) deſtitute of intrigue, action, and intereſt, diſplaying nothing more than the mechanical beauties of the art, and though decorated with a pompous title unintelligible throughout, is not unlike thoſe portraits and pictures to which the painters of old ſubſcribed the names of the perſonages and action they meant to repreſent: becauſe they were imperfect in point of imitation, the ſituations weakly expreſſed, the outlines incorrect, and the colours unſeemly.

"When dancers ſhall feel, and, Proteus-like, transform themſelves into various ſhapes to expreſs to the life the conflict of paſſions; when their features, their very looks, ſhall ſpeak their inward feelings; when, extending their arms beyond the narrow circle preſcribed by the rigid rules of pedantry, and with equal grace and judgment giving them a fuller ſcope, they ſhall by proper ſituations deſcribe the gradual and ſucceſſive progreſs of the paſſions; when, in fine, they call good ſenſe and genius to the aſſiſtance of their art; then they may expect to diſtinguiſh themſelves: explanatory ſpeeches will become uſeleſs; a mute but powerful eloquence will be ſubſtituted to much better effect; each motion will be a ſentence; every attitude will pourtray a ſituation; each geſture convey a thought, and each glance a new ſentiment: every part will pleaſe, becauſe the whole will be a true and faithful imitation of nature.

A ballet, in whatever ſtyle it may be, ſhould, according to Ariſtotle, be compoſed, as well as poetry, of two different parts, which he calls parts of quality and parts of quantity.

Nothing

Nothing exiſts in nature without matter, form, and figure: the ballet therefore becomes a mere non-entity, if it be deficient in any of thoſe eſſential parts, which mark and conſtitute the being of any one thing animate or inanimate. The matter here is the ſubject intended for repreſentation; its form conſiſts in the ingenious diſtribution of the plan; and the various compounding parts conſtitute its figure. Form therefore contains the parts of quality, and the extent the parts of quantity.

Thus it appears, that ballets are in ſome degree ſubject to the rules of poetical compoſition. They, nevertheleſs, differ from tragedies and comedies, in that the former are not ſubject to the three unities of time, place, and action: yet they require an unity of plot, in order that the various ſcenes may meet and end on the ſame point.—The ballet, therefore, may be termed the brother of the drama, though not reſtrained to its ſtricter rules, which only ſerve to cramp the imagination, check its flight, and confine genius; and, if adhered to, muſt ſet aſide all thought of compoſition of ballets, by depriving them of their chief ornament, pleaſing variety.

M. Noverre conſiders tragedy as the ſubject moſt ſuitable for the art of dancing. The former abounds in noble incidents, ſituations, &c. and theſe produce the beſt ſtage effects. Beſides, the paſſions are more forcibly expreſſed by great characters than by common men: the imitation is of courſe leſs difficult, the action in the pantomime more ſignificant, natural, and intelligible.

"The buſineſs of a ſkilful maſter (he obſerves) is to foreſee, as it were at one glance, the general effect that may reſult from the enſemble, and never give the preference to one ſingle part over the whole. The only way for him to beſtow his thoughts on the greateſt number, is to forget for a while the principal characters of the drama; if his whole attention ſhould entirely be taken up with the parts of his firſt dancers of both ſexes, the action is ſuſpended, the ſcenes are ſlow in their progreſs, and the whole performance muſt fall ſhort of its deſired effect.

In the tragedy of Merope by Voltaire, the principal characters are Merope, Polifonte, Egiſte, and Narbas: but, although the parts of the inferior actors are not of equal importance, yet they all concur to the general action, and to the progreſſion of the drama, which would appear deficient in ſome parts, ſhould either of thoſe characters be wanting in the repreſentation. No uſeleſs perſonage ſhould be obtruded on the ſtage. Every thing therefore that may tend to weaken the effect of the drama ought to be carefully avoided, and only that number of actors introduced which is barely requiſite for the execution of the performance.

"A ballet is a production of the ſame kind. It muſt be divided into acts and ſcenes, each of which, as well as the act itſelf, muſt have its beginning, its middle, and its end; that is, in other words, expoſition, plot, and denouement.

"I have obſerved above, that the principal performers in a ballet ſhould be forgotten for a while: my reaſon is, that, in my opinion, it is eaſier to give ſtriking parts to Hercules and Omphale, Ariadne and Bacchus, Ajax and Ulyſſes, &c. than to twenty-four perſons in their retinue: if theſe have nothing to ſay, they are ſuperfluous, and of courſe ought to be rejected; but, if they are to ſpeak, let their converſation be conſonant with that of the principal characters.

"The difficulty, therefore, does not lie in aſſigning a primary and diſtinctive part to Ajax or Ulyſſes; ſince it ſprings naturally from the importance of their ſituation in the play: but in introducing the figures in a becoming ſtyle, giving them parts of more or leſs importance, connected with the action of the two heroes; in introducing women, ſome of whom will appear concerned for Ajax, and the greater number ſhewing their partiality for Ulyſſes. The triumph of the latter, the former's death, preſent to the man of genius a ſeries of images that vie with each other in point of intereſting and picturеſque ſituations. Theſe, by means of a colouring ſkilfully

fully contraſted, cannot but produce the moſt lively ſenſations. In fine, a ballet pantomime ſhould be dramatic in all its parts; and the figure-dancers, who ſucceed to the principal performers, ought to continue the ſcene, not by a number of ſymmetrical figures and ſtudied ſteps, but by that kind of animated expreſſions which keeps up the attention of the ſpectators to the main ſubject for which the preceding actors have prepared the audience.

"Yet, either through ignorance or in conſequence of a vitiated habit, there are but few well-ſupported ballets. Dance is introduced for the mere purpoſe of dancing: the end is ſuppoſed to be anſwered by the mechanical motions of the feet, or by high jumping, and that the idea which people of real taſte may have of a ballet is fully anſwered, when inactive performers are introdnced in it, who mix and joſtle each other, preſenting a confuſed heap of pictures, ſketched without taſte, aukwardly grouped, and totally devoid of that harmony and expreſſion, the offspring of the ſoul, which alone can embelliſh art by giving it life."

M. Noverre, in conſidering the knowledge neceſſary for attaining perfection in the preſent art, obſerves, that mythology, ancient poetry, and chronology, ought to be the primary ſtudies of a ballet-maſter, who ought alſo to poſſeſs a genius for poetry and painting, ſince the art borrows all its charms from a perfect imitation of nature.

A ſlight knowledge of geometry cannot but prove very advantageous, as it will help the maſter to introduce his figures in due proportion, to calculate exactly, and execute with preciſion. By means of that unerring guide, he will retrench every ſuperfluous acceſſary, and thus enliven the performance. Taſte will introduce elegance, genius create variety, and judgment direct the whole.

What is a ballet but a piece of more or leſs complicated machinery, which ſtrikes or ſurpriſes the beholder by its various effects, only in proportion as thoſe are diverſified and ſudden? That chain and connection of figures, thoſe motions ſucceeding each other with rapidity, thoſe various forms turning contrary ways, that mixture of different incidents, the enſemble and harmony which mark the ſteps and accompany the exertions of the dancers; do not all theſe give you the idea of a mechaniſm moſt ingeniouſly contrived?

Ballets are often built on præternatural ſubjects: ſeveral of them require the aſſiſtance of machinery. For inſtance, few of the ſubjects taken from Ovid will be fit for repreſentation, without a change of ſcenery, flights through the air, metamorphoſes, &c. &c. This author therefore muſt never be taken for a model, unleſs the ballet-maſter himſelf be an expert mechaniſt. None are to be found out of the capital, but journeymen and ſtage-ſweepers, whom the patronage of ſome mighty ſon of the ſock has preferred by degrees to that employment. The talents of thoſe upſtarts conſiſt in, and reach not beyond, the capacity of putting up the lights which they were wont to ſnuff for many years, or letting down aukwardly a glory of the moſt wretched ſtyle. The theatres in Italy are not remarkable for their machinery; thoſe of Germany, built upon the ſame plan, are not leſs deficient in point of that enchanting part of ſtage-exhibition; ſo that a ballet-maſter muſt, in theſe countries, find himſelf greatly embarraſſed, if, unſkilled in the mechanical arts, he cannot convey his ideas with perſpicuity by building for that purpoſe ſmall models, which are better underſtood by the generality of workmen than the cleareſt verbal explanation.

The theatres of Paris and London are the beſt ſupplied with theſe reſources. The Engliſh are very ingenious: their ſtage machinery is more ſimplified than the French, and of courſe produces a quicker effect. Amongſt them all theſe kinds of works are moſt exquiſitely finiſhed; that neatneſs, care, and exactitude, which is remarkable throughout every part, greatly contribute to the preciſion of the whole. Thoſe chef-d'œuvres of mechaniſm particularly

diſplay themſelves in their pantomimes; which, however, are low and trivial, devoid of taſte and intereſt, and built upon the meaneſt incidents. It may be ſaid that this kind of entertainment, which is got up at a prodigious expence, is only calculated to pleaſe thoſe eyes which are ſhocked at nothing; and that it would meet with no ſucceſs on the French theatres, where no other pleaſantry is permitted but ſuch as is not incompatible with decency, abounds with delicacy and wit, and is no ways levelled againſt morals and humanity.

A good choice of muſic is as eſſential to dancing as the choice of words and the phraſing of a ſpeech is to eloquence. It is the tune and time of the muſic that fix and determine the motion of the dancers. If the former be uniform and devoid of taſte, the ballet will, like its model, be dull and unmeaning. In order to dance well, the body ſhould be firm and ſteady; it ſhould particularly be motionleſs and free from wavering while the legs are in exertion; for, when the body follows the actions of the feet, it diſplays as many grimaces and diſtortions as the legs execute different ſteps; the performance is then robbed of its eaſe, uniformity, harmony, exactneſs, firmneſs, perpendicularity, and equilibrium; in a word, of all thoſe beauties and graces which are ſo eſſential to make dancing give pleaſure and delight.

Many dancers are of opinion, that, to be ſoft and luxuriant, the knees muſt be bent very low. But in this they are moſt certainly miſtaken; for a more than ordinary flexion of the knees gives rather a dryneſs and inſipidity to dancing; and a dancer may be very inelegant, and jerk, as it were, all his movements, as well in bending very low as in not bending at all. The reaſon will appear natural and evident, when we reflect, that the time and motions of the dancer are ſtrictly ſubordinate to the time and movements of the muſic: purſuing this principle, it is not to be doubted, that when the flexion of the knees is greater than what the air or time of the dance requires, the meaſure then drawls along, languiſhes, and is loſt. To recover and catch again the time which this unneceſſary flexion had deſtroyed, the extenſion of the knee muſt be equally quick; and it is this ſudden tranſition which gives ſuch a harſhneſs and ſterility to the execution, and renders it as diſguſtful as the oppoſite fault of ſtiffneſs and inflexibility.

That luxuriant ſoftneſs requires more to its perfection than merely an exact flexion and extenſion of the knees: the ſpring of the inſtep muſt add its aſſiſtance, while the loins muſt balance the body to preſerve theſe ſprings in proper bounds. It is this rare harmony of motion (ſays M. Noverre) which has procured the celebrated Dupré the glorious title of the God of Dance.

There are many dancers, and of an inferior claſs only, who can diſplay a great variety of ſteps, badly enough choſen to be ſure, and often diſplayed without either judgment or taſte; but it is very uncommon to find among them that exactneſs of ear (that rare but innate talent of a dancer,) which gives life to and ſtamps a value upon ſteps, and which diffuſes over all their motions a ſpirit that animates and enlivens them. There are ſome ears ſtupid and inſenſible even to the moſt ſimple, plain, and ſtriking, movements; there are others, more cultivated or refined, that can feel and comprehend the meaſure, but cannot ſeize its intricacies; and there are others again to whom the moſt difficult airs and movements are eaſy and intelligible, and at once comprehended. It is nevertheleſs certain, that a dancer may have a very perfect and nice feeling, and yet not make his feelings intelligible to the audience, if he has not the art of commanding thoſe reſources which depend upon a proper exertion of the *coup de pied*: aukwardneſs becomes viſible where the exacteſt proportion was neceſſary; and every ſtep which would have been becoming, and produced the happieſt effect, had it been ſmartly introduced at the concluſion of the meaſure, will now be cold and lifeleſs, if all the limbs are in motion at once. It requires

more

more time to move the whole body than to exert any ſingle member; the flexion and extenſion of the inſtep is more readily and quickly made than the reciprocal motion of all the joints. This principle allowed, that the dancer is deſtitute of preciſion, who (ſuppoſing he poſſeſſes a muſical ear) knows not how to time his ſteps; the elaſticity of the inſtep, and the more or leſs active play of the muſcles, add to the natural ſenſibility of the ear, and ſtamp value and brilliancy on the dance. The joint charms of the harmony ſpringing from the movements of the muſic, and the motions of the dancer, captivate even thoſe whoſe ears are the moſt inſenſible and leaſt ſuſceptible of muſical impreſſion.

There are ſome countries where the inhabitants in general are endowed with this innate muſical taſte. The Palatinate, Wirtemberg, Saxony, Brandenbourg, Auſtria, and Bohemia, ſupply the orcheſtras of the German princes with many excellent muſicians and eminent compoſers. The Germans, indeed, are born with a very lively and juſt taſte for muſic, and have in them the ſeeds of true harmony; nothing is more common than to hear concerts, both in the ſtreets and in the ſhops of their mechanics, performed with the greateſt ſkill and exactneſs.

Such a natural and native taſte for muſic as we have been mentioning, is uſually accompanied by, or includes in it, a ſimilar one for dancing; they are kindred arts; the tender and harmonious accents of the one excite and produce the agreeable and expreſſive motions of the other, and their union entertains the eye and ear with animated pictures of ſentiment; theſe two ſenſes, again, convey to the heart the intereſting images which affect them, while the heart, in its turn, communicates them to the mental faculty: thus the pleaſure reſulting from the harmony and intelligence of theſe two arts enchants the ſpectator, and fills him with the moſt ſeducing pleaſures of voluptouſneſs.

Dancing is probably no where varied to ſuch a degree as in the provinces of Germany; where the well-known dances of one village are ſtrangers in the adjacent hamlet; their ſongs of mirth and merriment have no leſs different airs and movements, though they are all marked with that of gaiety. Their dances are pleaſing and engaging, becauſe the offſpring of ſimple nature; their motions expreſs joy and pleaſure; and the exactneſs with which the whole is performed gives a peculiar agreeableneſs to their ſteps, geſtures, and attitudes. Do they ſpring?—a hundred perſons, aſſembled round an oak, or ſome ancient pillar, ſeize the time at one inſtant, bound up and deſcend with the ſame exactneſs. Do they wiſh to mark the meaſure by a *coup de pied?*—all ſtrike with one conſent; or, when they catch up their women, you ſee them all in the air at an equal height, nor do they deſcend but at the preciſe note that marks the time.

The counter-point, which is doubtleſs the touchſtone of a delicate ear, is to them an object of no difficulty; hence their dance is ſo particularly animated, and the nicety of that organ has the effect of giving their different motions an air of gaiety and variety altogether exquiſite.

A dancer whoſe ear is untuned to harmony, diſplays his ſteps without order or regularity, wanders from his part, and purſues the meaſure without being able to reach it: devoid of judgment, his dancing has neither ſentiment nor expreſſion; and the muſic which ſhould direct his motions, regulate his ſteps, and guide his time, ſerves only to expoſe his imperfections and inſufficiency. The ſtudy of muſic ſhould therefore be applied to for the purpoſe of obviating this defect, and giving more ſenſibility and exactneſs to the organs of hearing.

It will not be expected that we ſhould give a deſcription of all the combinations of ſteps that are exerted in dancing; or enlarge on the mechanical particulars of the art. A diſſertation on the latter would be inſipid and diſguſtful; for the language of the feet and limbs is addreſſed to the eyes, not to the ears: and a detail of the former would be endleſs, every dancer having a peculiar mode.

ACCOUNT

ACCOUNT OF THE DANCING GIRLS.

DANCING-girls are employed all over the eaſt, as affording great diverſion at public entertainments. They are all proſtitutes; and, by the laws of their ſociety, are bound to refuſe no one for their price, which is rated according to their beauty and other accompliſhments. There are even particular ſets of them appropriated to the ſervice of the Gentoo temples, and the uſe of the bramin prieſts who attend them. Theſe poor creatures ſay that they were firſt debanched by their god, and afterwards by him conſigned over to the uſe of the prieſts who belong to his temples.

Theſe dancing-girls, whether in a ſettled or unſettled condition, live in a band or community under the direction of ſome ſuperannuated female of the ſame profeſſion, under whom they receive a regular education, and are trained up in all the arts of love and pleaſing, like ſcholars in an academy. Thus they acquire the art of captivating the affections of the other ſex to ſuch a degree, that nothing is more common than for one of the princes or chief people of the country to take a liking to one of theſe girls, and waſte immenſe ſums on her, though at the ſame time their own haram is ſtocked with beauties far ſuperior, and who are beſides poſſeſſed of the natural modeſty of the ſex, to which the others have not the ſmalleſt pretenſions. Thus ſome of theſe girls acquire immenſe wealth. In the neighbourhood of Goa, for inſtance, on a part of the continent bordering on the diſtrict of that iſland, the dancing-girls founded a village, after being driven from Goa by the zeal of the archbiſhop. Here they reſide in a body corporate, and attend the parties of pleaſure of the noblemen and principal inhabitants, for it is not every one's purſe that can afford them. Here many of them acquire conſiderable fortunes by this ſcandalous traffic, and throw it into a common ſtock for the ſake of carrying on merchandiſe; being concerned in ſhipping and the moſt profitable voyages, for which they have regular factors and brokers.

The dreſs of theſe women varies according to the country they live in; but in all it is the moſt gorgeous imaginable. They are loaded with jewels, literally from top to toe, ſince even on their toes they wear rings. Their necks are adorned with carcanets, their arms with bracelets, and their ancles with chains of gold and ſilver, often enriched with precious ſtones. They alſo wear noſe-jewels, which at firſt have an odd appearance, but to which the eye is ſoon reconciled. In Indoſtan, theſe dancing-girls, as well as the other women of the country, have a peculiar method of preſerving and managing their breaſts, which at the ſame time makes no inconſiderable part of their finery. They incloſe them in a pair of hollow caſes, exactly fitted to them, made of very light wood, linked together and buckled at the back. Theſe at once confine their breaſts ſo that they cannot grow to any diſguſtfully-exuberant ſize; though, from their ſmoothneſs and pliancy, they play ſo freely with every motion of the body, that they do not cruſh the tender texture of the fleſh in that part, like the ſtiff whalebone ſtays in uſe among the Europeans. The outſide of them is ſpread over with a thin plate of gold or ſilver, or ſet with gems if they can afford it. Another occaſional ornament the dancing-girls put on, particularly when they reſort to their gallants, viz. a necklace, of many looſe turns, compoſed of flowers ſtrung together, which they call mogrees, ſomewhat reſembling Spaniſh double jeſſamy, but of a much ſtronger and more agreeable fragrant odour, and far preferable to any perfumes. "They have nothing (ſays Mr. Groſe) or that nauſeous boldneſs which characteriſes the European proſtitutes, their ſtyle of ſeduction being all ſoftneſs and gentleneſs."

With regard to the performances of theſe women as dancers, we have various accounts. The author of

Memoirs of the late War in Aſia acquaints us, "that their attitudes as well as movements are not ungraceful. Theſe perſons are delicately formed, gaudily attired, and highly perfumed. By the continuation of wanton attitudes, they acquire, as they grow warm in the dance, a frantic laſciviouſneſs themſelves, and communicate, by a natural contagion, the moſt voluptuous deſires to the beholders." Mr. Ives ſeems to have been very cool on this ſubject: "I could not (ſays he) ſee any thing in their performance worthy of notice. Their movements are more like tumbling or ſhewing poſtures than dancing. Their dreſs is thin and light; and their hair, necks, ears, arms, wriſts, fingers, legs, feet, and even their toes, are covered with rings of gold and ſilver, made after a clumſy manner. They wear two rings in their noſes; and, by their ſtaring looks and odd geſticulations, you would rather ſuſpect them to be mad women than morris-dancers. The band of muſic that attends them is not leſs ſingular in its way: it is chiefly compoſed of three or four men, who hold two pieces of bell-metal in their hands, with which they make an inceſſant noiſe; another man beats what he is pleaſed to call a drum; and, that they may not want vocal muſic to complete the band, there are always two others appointed to ſing. Theſe laſt generally lay in their mouths a good loading of beetle-nut before they begin; which, after having been well chewed, tinges the ſaliva with ſuch a redneſs, that a ſtranger would judge them to bleed at the mouth by too violent an exertion of their voice. Theſe gentry are called ticky-taw boys, from the two words ticky-taw, which they continually repeat, and chant with great vehemence. The dancing-girls are ſometimes made uſe of in their religious ceremonies, as, when the prieſts bring forth the images of their gods into the open fields on a car ornamented with laſcivious figures, theſe girls dance before the images amidſt a great croud of people; and, having been ſelected for their ſuperior beauty, are very profitable to their maſters the prieſts, who are ſaid to proſtitute them to all comers."

Mr. Groſe informs us, that "theſe dances would hardly at firſt reliſh with Europeans, eſpecially as they are accompanied with a muſic far from delightful, conſiſting of little drums called gumgums, cymbals, and a ſort of fife, which makes a hideous din, and are played on by men, whoſe effeminacy, grimaces, and uncouth ſhrivelled features, all together ſhock the eye and torture the ear. However by uſe we become reconciled to the noiſe, and may obſerve ſome not unpleaſing airs, with which the dancers keep time: the words often expreſs the matter of a pantomime dance, ſuch as a lover courting his miſtreſs; a procureſs bringing a letter, and endeavouring to ſeduce a woman from one gallant in favour of another; a girl, timorous and afraid of being caught in an intrigue. All theſe love-ſcenes the girls execute in character-dances, and with no deſpicable expreſſions, if they are proficients in their art; for then their geſtures, air, and ſteps, are marking and well adapted. In ſome of their dances, even in public, modeſty is not much reſpected by the laſcivious attitudes into which they throw themſelves, without expoſing any nudity; being richly clad and bedecked with jewels after their manner. But in private parties to which they are called, as in gardens, they give themſelves a great looſe, and have dances in reſerve, in which, though ſtill without any groſſneſs in diſcovering their bodies, they are miſtreſſes of ſuch motions and lewdneſs of looks and geſtures as are perhaps more provoking.

MEMOIRS

MEMOIRS OF LOVE AND GALLANTRY.

DON CARLOS; OR, THE UNFORTUNATE ATTACHMENT.

WE ſometimes ſee on the theatre of life certain illuſtrious perſonages who ſeem to have made their appearance only to excite the regret of the virtuous and extort tears from the heart of ſenſibility. Such were the noble Don Carlos, heir-apparent to Philip II. of Spain, and the beauteous and accompliſhed Elizabeth princeſs-royal of France.

The univerſal hopes of the Spaniſh nation were centered in Don Carlos. The emperor Charles V. his grandfather, ſuperintended his education himſelf, and it was imagined that the young prince would one day rival him in his exploits and ſurpaſs him in virtue. Fired with ſeeing himſelf the object of the attentions of a grandfire ſo celebrated, Don Carlos ſhewed a fondneſs for his inſtructions which probably he never would have ſhewn for the lectures of any other maſter. The magnanimity and heroiſm of Charles V. ſeemed to be refined in their paſſage into the ſoul of his grandſon; and to thoſe qualities which are formed to excite admiration he joined thoſe which are better calculated to make princes the objects of affection, namely, that openneſs of addreſs, that affability, that generoſity, which were the conſpicuous and ſhining qualities of Francis I. of France, the great rival of Charles V.

Elizabeth, the eldeſt daughter of Henry II. was at this period, the brighteſt ornament of the French court. She united more ſweetneſs, nobleneſs, and ſenſibility, to all the exterior charms, than can eaſily be conceived. Her beauty was ſo powerful, that ſhe gave riſe to a proverbial expreſſion, ſtill uſed in Spain, "That the wiſeſt and moſt cautious could not behold her without danger."

The diſputes between Charles V. and Francis I. had been kept alive by their ſucceſſors; but the exhauſting of the two nations at length made them wiſh to put a period to a war, which had proved no leſs tedious than deſtructive; and the propoſal of a marriage between Elizabeth and Carlos, which had been made ſome years before, was now revived as one of the preliminaries for a peace.—In the mean time, convinced, as well as all Europe, that the conſequence of ſo equal an alliance would be a general pacification, the Prince of Spain and Madame of France were inſenſibly accuſtomed to look upon themſelves as deſtined for each other, and were happy in the thought. Elizabeth was fond of talking with thoſe of her own age of the happineſs that awaited her; the prince, on the other hand, only regretted that the arrangements of policy had delayed his happineſs ſo long. Thus they both looked forward with impatience for the moment which was to make them one, when an unforeſeen event fruſtrated their hopes, and plunged them in the deepeſt abyſs of miſery and deſpair.—Philip II. having loſt his wife, Mary queen of England, thought proper to demand the princeſs in marriage, for himſelf, whom he had already obtained for his ſon. No pretext could be aſſigned for a refuſal, without hazarding a continuation of the war; and Elizabeth was ſacrificed to reaſons of ſtate.

To deſcribe the ſituation of this beautiful young princeſs, on ſuch a ſudden change, is not eaſy. All the ſuperſtructure of her happineſs was diſſolved in a moment. It was no longer the ſympathy of two youthful hearts; but ſhe was condemned to the moſt diſmal ſlavery with a monarch of an auſtere and gloomy diſpoſition, of an advanced age, and who had made it a cuſtom and a kind of law never to unbend, at leaſt in public, from the moſt rigid auſterity.—The news alſo ſtruck Don Carlos like a thunder-bolt: of all probabilities, this new marriage was the laſt he could have expected. From that moment he hoped for no more happineſs in this world; he led a moſt retired life, and fell into a deep melancholy,

lancholy, which continued till the day of his death.

When the intended queen arrived at the gates of Madrid, the king ſent his ſon to meet her, accompanied by the greateſt nobles of his kingdom. The ſight of Elizabeth was but ill calculated to cure him of a paſſion with which fame and her portrait had inſpired him. As ſoon as he ſaw her, he ſaw his misfortune in its utmoſt extent. The princeſs eaſily diſcovered the ſecrets of his heart; as their feelings were ſimilar, their ſouls underſtood each other.

The queen's charms produced all their effect on Philip II. He conceived a violent paſſion for her; but that paſſion was tinctured with his gloomy and diſſembling character; and Elizabeth could not help contraſting his diſpoſition with that air of ſenſibility, which animated all the behaviour of Don Carlos.

Some ſhort time after, an involuntary emotion engaged the prince to inform himſelf in a more decided manner of what paſſed in the breaſt of the queen. One day, being by chance left alone with her for ſome moments, Don Carlos begged her, in the moſt ſuppliant manner, to pardon him, if the ſecret which he meant to retain ſhould eſcape from his breaſt; he informed her of what he had felt at a time when without being criminal he turned his thoughts ſolely upon her, and to what torments he had been expoſed ever ſince the fatal period which had deſtroyed his hopes.—The queen could not hear him without an emotion which revived the ideas of her own ſenſations, nor without confeſſing the eſteem ſhe had conceived for him when he was deſtined to be her huſband; ſhe added, that ſhe ſtill thought him worthy of that eſteem, and that to the utmoſt of her power ſhe would give him all thoſe conſolations which were conſiſtent with what their common duty preſcribed to them.

From this inſtant the illuſtrious but unfortunate pair found no moments more happy than when they had an opportunity of blending their tears together, and of exhorting each other to endure the cruelties of fortune with fortitude and intrepidity.

Some time after this Don Carlos was ſent to Alcala to finiſh his ſtudies. The city of Alcala made him a preſent of a very fine horſe, which no perſon could break in; he reſolved to mount it, but met with ſo dangerous a fall that his life was deſpaired of. In this extremity, his heart inflamed more than ever with his paſſion, he charged the Marquis de Poſa, his favourite, to carry to the queen his laſt adieu. When the marquis diſcharged his melancholy commiſſion, the diſtreſſed princeſs could not reſtrain the exceſs of her grief: ſhe thought herſelf no longer obliged to lay herſelf under any reſtraint; for ſhe imagined, that, after the death of the prince, (which ſeemed inevitable,) her compaſſion would never be interpreted as criminal. In a word, ſhe wrote him a moſt tender and pathetic letter, ſuch as a violent paſſion, under long reſtraint, could alone inſpire; it was the utmoſt effuſion of her ſoul. This letter had an unexpected effect upon Don Carlos; it reſtored him to his health.—On his return to Madrid, notwithſtanding the greateſt importunities, the queen could never recover from him this precious pledge of her love: it was deſtined to be the ſentence of his death.

But political matters haſtened the deſtiny of theſe two lovers. Deputies from Flanders were come to court to endeavour to ſoften Philip II. in favour of the diſtreſſed provinces whom the tyranny of their governors had hurried into the moſt dangerous rebellion. The humanity of Don Carlos was known to all Europe; the deputies aſſured him that the people had the moſt favourable opinion of him, and that no one was more capable than himſelf to put an end to their troubles. An ardent deſire of glory therefore, together with the ſolicitations of the queen, who ſaw too well the fatal effects which the ſentiments they cheriſhed for each other might produce, all determined the prince to demand of his father the government of the Low Countries; but Philip had

had conceived a ſecret enmity againſt a ſon whoſe qualities were ſo oppoſite to his own, and Don Carlos met with a refuſal. In the mean while the rebellion increaſed every day, and the deputies preſſed Don Carlos very warmly to ſet out for Flanders, aſſuring him that his preſence would reſtore every thing to order. The prince made a ſecond application for the government, anſwering with his life that he would appeaſe all the troubles; but ſtill met with a refuſal. At laſt he reſolved to comply with the wiſhes of the people, to prevent the effuſion of blood, and to ſerve his father in ſpite of himſelf. He fixed the time of his departure, and till the day appointed took the greateſt precautions for the ſecurity of his own perſon; he had a very extraordinary lock made for his apartment, which could not be opened on the outſide, and every night placed a brace of piſtols and two ſwords under his pillow. But he was encompaſſed with ſecret enemies, who watched all his motions, and turned all his precautions againſt him. The principal of theſe was the Princeſs d'Ebolé, firſt lady of honour to the queen, who had a liking for the prince, and never could forgive the cold politeneſs with which he had received her advances. This vindictive female cheriſhed the antipathy which Philip had to his ſon; and, by communicating to him all the conjectures ſhe had formed, eaſily ſucceeded in planting the moſt violent ſuſpicion in his reſtleſs boſom. The king was in this ſituation, when Don John of Auſtria informed him, that it was reported Don Carlos was making conſiderable collections of arms and money. Immediately after, the maſter-general of the poſt-office came to inform him, that a Frenchman belonging to the queen had ordered two horſes to be got ready againſt the evening.—The king, alarmed by theſe accumulated proofs, made no doubt but his ſon had formed ſome plot againſt him. He immediately poſted ſentinels in all the avenues to the prince's apartments; he ſent for the ſmith that had made the new lock, and ordered him to ſpoil the wards. Don Carlos entered at the uſual time; as it was intended to arreſt him when he attempted to eſcape, they waited for ſome time after the hour appointed; but ſome unforeſeen circumſtance had determined him to delay his departure. The king ordered them to break in. The Count de Lermo entered firſt, and found the prince faſt aſleep; he even took away the arms from under his pillow without awakening him. After this the king entered in perſon, preceded by a great number of the nobles armed with ſwords and piſtols. The prince, on opening his eyes, cried out, "I am a dead man;" when his father replied, without the leaſt diſcompoſure, that "all they did was for his good." They ſeized his papers, and diſcovered a great many letters from the queen, none of which contained any thing criminal: at laſt they met with that affectionate letter written to him at Alcala when his life was deſpaired of. On peruſal of it, Philip was torn with the torments of the moſt dreadful jealouſy; but he had the addreſs to keep his feelings to himſelf. During this interval the apartment of the prince was rifled, and all the rich furniture was taken away, ſo that they left only a wretched mattraſs for the preſumptive heir of ſo many kingdoms to repoſe on.

The two deputies from Flanders were arreſted the ſame day: one of them was beheaded, and the other had the permiſſion of putting an end to his life by poiſon. But the king transferred the trial of his ſon to ſuch hands as he could depend upon: he named the inquiſitors for his judges. They ſifted the affair with a diligence ſcarcely to be credited; they beſtowed the moſt extravagant praiſes upon the rigour of Philip II. whom they preferred in firmneſs to Abraham; nay, the wretches did not ſcruple to compare him to the Supreme Being, who ſacrificed his only Son for the ſalvation of mankind.—They condemned Don Carlos to perpetual impriſonment during life.

Notwithſtanding all the precautions which were taken to render his impriſonment a profound ſecret, it was ſoon ſpread all over Europe. The

king of France, the Empreſs, and moſt other powers in Chriſtendom, united in endeavouring to procure him his pardon. Inſtead of being touched with theſe ſolicitations, Philip II. employed himſelf in multiplying the moſt diſmal objects round about his ſon. The young prince was obliged to put on mourning; his priſon was hung with black, which was embroidered with the emblems of death; his victuals were brought him by ſtrangers who were clothed alſo in black, and who ſerved him with down-caſt looks, keeping the moſt profound ſilence. He ſeemed to be immured alive in ſome ſepulchre inhabited by ſpectres.—All theſe ſufferings excited the livelieſt compaſſion in the people; and the king was apprehenſive that, if he deferred his vengeance much longer, he might be hindered in the execution of it. A ſubtle poiſon was therefore ſprinkled upon the prince's linen, and upon all the victuals that were brought him; but, either from the ſtrength of his conſtitution or from ſome other cauſe, the poiſon had no effect upon him.—In a word, he was at laſt informed he might chooſe himſelf what manner of death he would die.

It is impoſſible to deſcribe the ſituation of the queen when ſhe heard this final deciſion of the inexorable Philip. It was ſhe who had preſſed all the powers of Europe to ſolicit a pardon for the Prince of Spain. As a laſt reſource ſhe perſuaded him to demand a perſonal interview with the king.

Whatever repugnance Don Carlos might have for ſuch a ſtep, he was however willing to give the queen this laſt mark of compliance with her will.—When they announced his father's arrival, "ſay my *king*," replied he in a melancholy accent, "and not my *father*." As ſoon as he ſaw him, he fell at his feet, bedewed them with his tears, and aſked his forgiveneſs in the moſt melting expreſſions, telling him, "that it was his own blood he was going to ſhed."—"When my blood is bad," replied the hard-hearted father, "I offer my arm to the ſurgeon to let it out." On this the prince aroſe with a noble rage: "Know," ſaid he with great warmth, "that, if there is any thing in this world that I repent of, it is this ſtep which I have now taken. If ſome perſons, who have a reſiſtleſs power over me, had not impelled me to it, I ſhould never have condeſcended to ſo humiliating a cowardice, and ſhould have died more gloriouſly than *you* live." Immediately after, he aſked the guards whether the bath, in which he was to die, was ready.

The king retired after his ſon's reply, without ſeeming in the leaſt diſcompoſed.—Don Carlos then took off the portrait of the queen, which he always wore in his boſom, entered the bath, and ordered the veins in his arms and legs to be opened.—In his laſt moments he held this precious image with a ſteady hand; his eyes were fixed upon it with an expreſſion of affection, ſorrow, and rapture; and, while he contemplated it, ſhed his blood, loſt his ſtrength, and breathed out his life in a ſigh for her who had given birth to his love.

The vengeance of this gloomy and vindictive monarch was not yet glutted—the queen was ſtill living.—One morning the Ducheſs of Alba entered the apartment of Elizabeth with a phial in her hand: the queen was pregnant, and the ducheſs informed her that the medicine ſhe had brought was pronounced by the phyſicians neceſſary to give her an eaſy delivery.—As the princeſs refuſed to take it notwithſtanding all her importunities, the king himſelf entered, and told her that her taking it was of the utmoſt importance, and that ſhe abſolutely muſt. "As you inſiſt upon it," replied ſhe, "I will." The ſame day ſhe expired in the greateſt agonies, after bringing forth a dead child.

Thus periſhed, in the flower of their age, the moſt accompliſhed prince that Spain ever produced, and one of the moſt amiable princeſſes that ever reigned over that great kingdom. They had ſcarcely attained the twenty-third year of their age: their virtues and their misfortunes are conſecrated in the annals of hiſtory, and will always be dear to the memory of mankind.

AUSTRIA.

AUSTRIA is one of the principal provinces of the empire of Germany towards the eaſt; from which ſituation it takes its name Ooſt-ryck, in the German language ſignifying the Eaſt Country. It is bounded on the north by Moravia; on the eaſt by Hungary; on the ſouth by Stiria; and on the weſt by Bavaria. It is divided into Upper and Lower. Upper Auſtria is ſituated on the ſouth, and Lower Auſtria on the north, ſide of the Danube. Vienna, the capital, is in Upper Auſtria, which contains ſeveral other very conſiderable towns. The country is very fertile, has a great many mines, and produces vaſt quantities of ſulphur.

In the ninth and tenth centuries, Auſtria was the frontier of the empire againſt the barbarians. In 928, the emperor Henry the Fowler, perceiving that it was of great importance to ſettle ſome perſon in Auſtria who might oppoſe theſe incurſions, inveſted Leopold, ſurnamed the Illuſtrious, with that country. Otho I. erected Auſtria into a marquiſate in favour of his brother-in-law Leopold, whoſe deſcendant Henry II. was created duke of Auſtria by the emperor Frederic Barbaroſſa. His poſterity becoming extinct in 1240, the ſtates of the country, in order to defend themſelves from the incurſions of the Bavarians and Hungarians, reſolved to put themſelves under the protection of Henry marquis of Miſnia; but Othogar II. king of Bohemia, being likewiſe invited by a party in the duchy, took poſſeſſion of it, alleging not only the invitation of the ſtates, but alſo the right of his wife, heireſs of Frederic the laſt duke. The emperor Rodolphus I. pretending a right to this duchy, refuſed to give Othogar the inveſtiture of it; and afterwards, killing him in a battle, procured the right of it to his own family. From this Rodolphus the preſent houſe of Auſtria is deſcended, which for ſeveral centuries paſt has rendered itſelf ſo famous and ſo powerful, having given fourteen emperors to Germany, and ſix kings to Spain.

In 1477, Auſtria was erected into an archduchy by the emperor Frederic the Pacific, for his ſon Maximilian, with theſe privileges: that theſe ſhall be judged to have obtained the inveſtiture of the ſtates, if they do not receive it after having demanded it three times; that if they receive it from the emperor, or the imperial ambaſſadors, they are to be on horſeback, clad in a royal mantle, having in their hand a ſtaff of command, and upon their head a ducal crown of two points, and ſurrounded with a croſs like that of the imperial crown. The archduke is born privy-counſellor to the emperor, and his ſtates cannot be put to the ban of the empire. All attempts againſt his perſon are puniſhed as crimes of leſe-majeſty, in the ſame manner as thoſe againſt the king of the Romans, or Electors. No one dared to challenge him to ſingle combat. It is in his choice to aſſiſt at the aſſemblies, or to be abſent; and he has the privilege of being exempt from contributions and public taxes, excepting twelve ſoldiers which he is obliged to maintain againſt the Turks for one month. He has rank immediately after the electors; and exerciſes juſtice in his ſtates without appeal, by virtue of a privilege granted by Charles V. His ſubjects cannot even be ſummoned out of his province upon account of lawſuits, to give witneſs, or to receive the inveſtiture of fiefs. Any of the lands of the empire may be alienated in his favour, even thoſe that are feudal; and he has a right to create counts, barons, gentlemen, poets, and notaries. In the ſucceſſion to his ſtates, the right of birth takes place; and, failing males, the females ſucceed according to the lineal right; and, if no heir be found, they may diſpoſe of their lands as they pleaſe.

Upper Auſtria, properly ſo called, has throughout the appearance of a happy country; here are no ſigns of the

the ſtriking contraſt betwixt poverty and riches which offends ſo much in Hungary. All the inhabitants, thoſe of the capital only excepted, enjoy that happy mediocrity which is the conſequence of a gentle and wiſe adminiſtration. The farmer has property; and the rights of the nobility, who enjoy a kind of lower judicial power, are well defined. The ſouth and ſouth-weſt parts of the country are bounded by a ridge of hills, the inhabitants of which enjoy a ſhare of proſperity unknown to thoſe of the interior parts of France. There are many villages and market-towns, the inhabitants of which having bought themſelves off from vaſſalage, are now their own governors, and belong ſome of them to the eſtates of the country. The cloiſters, the prelates of which belong to the eſtates of the country, are the richeſt in Germany, after the immediate prelacies and abbacies of the empire. One of the great convents of Benedictines is worth upwards of 4000 millions of French livres, half of which goes to the exchequer of the country.

Lower Auſtria yearly exports more than two millions worth of guilders of wine to Moravia, Bohemia, Upper Auſtria, Bavaria, Saltzberg, and part of Stiria and Carinthia. This wine is ſour, but has a great deal of ſtrength, and may be carried all over the world without danger; when it is ten or twenty years old it is very good. This country is very well peopled. Mr. Schloſſer, in his political journal, which contains an account of the population of Auſtria, eſtimates that of this country at 2,100,000 men. The revenue of this country is about 14,000,000 of florins; of which the city of Vienna contributes above five, as one man in the capital earns as much as three in the country.

The ſouthern parts of Auſtria are covered with hills, which riſe gradually from the banks of the Danube to the borders of Stiria, and are covered with woods. They loſe themſelves in the maſs of mountains which run to the ſouth of Germany, and ſtretch through all Stiria, Carniola, Carinthia, and Tyrol, to the Swiſs Alps; and are probably, after Savoy and Switzerland, the higheſt part of the earth. The inhabitants of this extenſive ridge of mountains are all very much alike; they are a ſtrong, large, and, the goitres excepted, a very handſome, people.

The characteriſtic of the inhabitants of all this country is ſtriking bigotry, united with ſtriking ſenſuality. You need only ſee what is going forwards here to be convinced that the religion taught by the monks is as ruinous for the morals as it is repugnant to Chriſtianity. The cicisbeos accompany the married women from their bed to church, and lead them to the very confeſſional. The bigotry of the public in the interior parts of Auſtria, which from the mixture of gallantry with it, is ſtill to be found even amongſt people of rank, degenerates amongſt the common people into the groſſeſt and moſt abominable buffoonery. The Windes, who are mixed with the Germans in theſe countries, diſtinguiſh themſelves by a ſuperſtitious cuſtom that does little honour to the human underſtanding, and would be incredible if we had not the moſt unequivocal proofs of the fact before our eyes. Many years ago, they ſet out in company with ſome Hungarian enthuſiaſts to Cologne on the Rhine, which is about one hundred and twenty German miles diſtant, to cut off the beard of a crucifix there. Every ſeven years this operation is repeated, as in this ſpace of time the beard grows again to its former length. The rich perſons of the aſſociation ſend the poorer ones as their deputies, and the magiſtrates of Cologne receive them as embaſſadors from a foreign prince. They are entertained at the expence of the ſtate, and a counſellor ſhews them the moſt remarkable things in the town. This farce brings in large ſums of money at ſtated times, and may therefore deſerve political encouragement; but ſtill, however, it is the moſt miſerable and meaneſt way of gain that can be imagined. Theſe Windes have alone the right to ſhave our Saviour, and the beard grows only for them. They firmly believe, that, if they did not do this ſervice to the crucifix, the earth would be ſhut

to

to them for the next ſeven years, and there would be no harveſts. For this reaſon they are obliged to carry the hair home with them, as the proof of having fulfilled their commiſſion, the returns of which are diſtributed amongſt the different communities, and preſerved as holy reliques. The imperial court has for a long time endeavoured in vain to prevent this emigration, which deprives agriculture of ſo many uſeful hands. When the Windes could not go openly, they would go clandeſtinely. At length the court thought of the expedient of forbidding the regency of Cologne to let them enter the town. This happened ſix years ago, and the numerous embaſſy was obliged to beg its way back again without the wonderful beard; which without doubt the capuchins, to whom the crucifix belonged, uſed to put together from their own. The trade which the monks carry on with holy ſalves, oils, &c. is ſtill very conſiderable; a prohibition of the court, lately publiſhed, has rather leſſened it, but it cannot be entirely ſuppreſſed till next generation. It is now carried on ſecretly, but perhaps to nearly as great an amount as formerly.

THE PROGRESS OF VANITY.

IT is not a little difficult to diſcriminate rightly between ambition and vanity, we are by both ſenſations prompted to exalt ourſelves either in ſome ſphere or other; and the attainment of ſuch end, tho' ſometimes aſcribed to a laudable ambition, is very frequently the reſult of vanity alone. It cannot be overlooked however, that with the wiſe man, whoſe principal aim is to know himſelf, and whoſe knowledge and experience dictate to him alone the veneration of a ſuperior, and not the ſtupid admiration of mortals like himſelf, humility ſtands the foremoſt of the virtues; without it beauty itſelf ceaſes to charm, and the allurements and attractions of the female ſex in general are diſguſting, without that modeſty which is their chief and conſpicuous ornament. The effects of vanity on mankind are various as the cauſes whereby ſuch vanity is excited; it is however for the moſt part of that nature which cannot merit praiſe, as it too often adopts a ſyſtem of laſſitude under the cover of great abilities, which in the minds of thoſe in a humble ſphere, would be converted into a ſpring of action, meritorious in itſelf, and beneficial to others. The operations of this paſſion likewiſe daily expoſe us to the ridicule of the world, which, though ſometimes miſplaced, is not always ſo. Yet even this ridicule ſo evident to the eyes of others, and ſo reproachful to ourſelves, is by a ſtrange infatuation never appropriated to ourſelves. Thus the infirmities of the human mind (of which alas we all partake) are beheld only in others, and the propenſities to vice are execrated by us as though we did not participate in them. It has been urged as a plea for this faſhionable failing, that there is no man but is acquainted with his own abilities; we cannot by any means contradict this: but, while we acknowledge the truth of it, we cannot but deplore the weakneſs of the human being, who is in purſuit of the moſt empty and leaſt deſirable of all attainments. If vanity is made a leading object, how ſhall we bear the frowns and ſcorns of the world, which, whether merited or not, requires ſome fortitude to ſupport, and which, alas! vanity can never inſpire? If vanity is our portion, how ſhall we arrive at any perfection in ſcience, for we are beforehand ſufficiently wiſe, and need not further information? In fact, there is nothing in the human heart ſo treacherous to its own felicity, as the encouragement of a ſenſation, which though it may hold its ſeat for a time, the deluſion muſt at laſt vaniſh, and leave the ſad reſource of fruitleſs reflection. For, when our youthful avocations have no foundation in truth and virtue, the refuge which we ſhall but too ſolicitouſly fly to in old age for ſolace and tranquillity, will afford only imbecility and diſappointment!

DESCRIPTION

DESCRIPTION OF THE ISLAND OF MARTINICO,

Lately captured by the Britiſh Forces; embelliſhed with an elegant Repreſentation of the ſtorming of FORT ROYAL, and a ſtriking Likeneſs of Gen. Sir CHA. GREY.

MARTINICO was without exception the richeſt, beſt planted, and ſtrongeſt, of all the French Caribbee iſlands; and its fertility is unqueſtioned by its very great production of ſugar, ginger, and tobacco, the laſt of an extraordinary quality. It is in 61° W. Long. 14° 30′ N. Lat.

The land is not only rich and fruitful, but alſo improved with the utmoſt induſtry, and alſo with extraordinary ſkill. The ſea-coaſt and harbours were excellently well fortified, and the ſeveral forts had conſtantly ſtrong garriſons of regular troops from France. The principal commodity at preſent raiſed in the Caribbee iſlands is ſugar, whereas formerly it was tobacco. M. de Poincy was the firſt who taught the art of raiſing the ſugar-cane, and curing the juice of it. He was a man of ſuch extraordinary genius, that he improved upon the methods then in uſe at Brazil and the Madeiras; the mills he cauſed to be erected were ſtronger, neater, and better fitted for uſe; and his furnaces likewiſe were contrived to much greater advantage; ſo that he not only introduced it, but carried the art of ſugar-making to a very high degree of perfection. Beſides ſugar they raiſe alſo a great deal of indigo, in which they did not ſo ſoon ſucceed as in ſugar; which the French writers attribute to the intolerable ſtench the making of that commodity is attended with. But they were more happy in raiſing cotton, which requires very little pains or labour.

They alſo cultivate cocoa to great advantage, and draw conſiderable profit from ginger, caſſia, and pimento, which is what we call Jamaica pepper, or all-ſpice, of which they export conſiderable quantities. They likewiſe manufacture rocou, for the uſe of dyers, and ſend home variety of medicinal gums, and wet ſweet-meats of ſeveral kinds.—This iſland produces alſo ſeveral kinds of valuable woods, which are uſed for dying, inlaying, and cabinet-work; ſuch as roſe-wood, which when wrought and poliſhed, has a very beautiful appearance, as well as fine ſmell.

Though this iſland produces ſo many rich and valuable commodities, yet it ſtands in need of very large ſupplies of various kinds of neceſſaries, without which it could not poſſibly ſubſiſt, ſuch as horſes, and cattle of all kinds; corn, roots, dry fiſh, and all ſorts of lumber, of which it received conſiderable quantities from Canada, and the reſt it had heretofore from our northern colonies, in exchange for ſugar, tobacco, indigo and other goods, which are ſent to Canada, and for molaſſes to our colonies, where it is diſtilled into rum.

In Martinico it is computed that they make, one year with another, ten thouſand hogſheads of ſugar, each of about ſix hundred weight; in Guadaloupe, about four thouſand hogſheads; and in the other iſlands, about one thouſand hogſheads all together. The French employed in this trade annually between two and three hundred ſhips, from the burden of one hundred to three hundred tons. The time in which they ſailed from France is between September and February, that they might avoid as much as poſſible the hurricanes, and arrive in a fit ſeaſon for completing their cargoes.

The iſland is ſixteen leagues in length and forty-five in circumference, leaving out the capes, ſome of which extend two or three leagues into the ſea. It is very uneven, and interſected in all parts by a number of hillocks; which are moſtly of a conical form. Three mountains riſe above theſe ſmaller eminences. The higheſt bears the indelible marks of a volcano. The woods with which it is covered continually attract the clouds, which occaſions noxious damps, and contributes to make it horrid

horrid and inacceſſible; while the two others are in moſt parts cultivated. From theſe mountains iſſue the many ſprings that water the iſland. Theſe waters, which flow in gentle ſtreams, are changed into torrents on the ſlighteſt ſtorm. Their qualities are derived from the ſoil over which they flow. In ſome places they are excellent, in others ſo bad that the inhabitants are obliged to drink the water they have collected during the rainy ſeaſon.

Of all the French ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies, Martinico was moſt happily ſituated with regard to the winds which prevail in thoſe ſeas. Its harbours poſſeſs the ineſtimable advantage of affording a certain ſhelter from the hurricanes which annoy theſe latitudes. The harbour of Fort Royal is one of the beſt in all the windward iſlands; and ſo celebrated for its ſafety, that, when it was open to the Dutch, their ſhipmaſters had orders from the republic to take ſhelter there in June, July, and Auguſt, the three months in which the hurricanes are moſt frequent. The lands of the Lamentin, which are but a league diſtant, are the richeſt and moſt fertile in the whole iſland. The numerous ſtreams which water this fruitful country convey loaded canoes to a conſiderable diſtance from the ſea. The protection of the fortifications ſecured the peaceable enjoyment of ſo many advantages; which, however, were balanced by a ſwampy and unwholeſome ſoil. This capital of Martinico was alſo the rendezvous of the men of war; which branch of the navy has always oppreſſed the merchantmen. On this account, Fort Royal was an improper place to become the centre of trade, which was therefore removed to St. Peter's. This little town, notwithſtanding the fires that have four times reduced it to aſhes, ſtill contains one thouſand ſeven hundred houſes. It is ſituated on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland, on a bay, or inlet, which is almoſt circular. One part of it is built on the ſtrand along the ſea-ſide, which is called the Anchorage; and is the place deſtined for ſhips and ware-houſes. The other part of the town ſtands upon a low hill: it is called the Fort, from a ſmall fortification that was built there in 1665, to check the ſeditions of the inhabitants againſt the tyranny of monopoly; but it now ſerves to protect the road from foreign enemies. Theſe two parts of the town are ſeparated by a rivulet. The anchorage is at the back of a pretty high and ſteep hill. Shut up as it were by this hill, which intercepts the eaſterly winds, the moſt conſtant and moſt ſalubrious in theſe parts; expoſed, without any refreſhing breezes, to the ſcorching beams of the ſun, reflected from the hill, from the ſea, and the black ſand on the beach; this place is extremely hot, and always unwholeſome. Beſides, there is no harbour; and the ſhips, which cannot winter ſafely upon this coaſt, are obliged to take ſhelter at Fort Royal. But theſe diſadvantages are compenſated by the conveniency of the road of St. Peter's, for loading and unloading of goods; and by its ſituation, ſhips can freely go in and out at all times, and with all winds.

In 1769, France imported from Martinico, upon 202 trading veſſels, 177,116 quintals of fine ſugar, and 12,579 quintals of raw ſugar; 68,518 quintals of coffee; 11,731 quintals of cocoa; 6048 quintals of cotton; 2518 quintals of caſſia; 783 caſks of rum; 307 hogſheads of molaſſes; 150 pounds of indigo; 2147 pounds of preſerved fruits; 47 pounds of chocolate; 280 pounds of raſped tobacco; 494 pounds of rope-yarn; 334 cheſts of liqueurs; 234 hogſheads of molaſſes, &c. 451 quintals of wood for dying; and 12,108 hides in the hair. All theſe productions together have been bought in the colony itſelf, for 536,631l. 9s. 10d. It is true, that the colony has received from the mother-country to the amount of 588,412l. 16s. 6d. of merchandiſe; but part of this has been ſent away to the Spaniſh coaſts, and another part conveyed to the Engliſh ſettlements.

This iſland was taken by the Britiſh in 1762, but reſtored in 1763.

[*For particulars of the recent capture of this Iſland by General Sir* CHARLES GREY, *and Admiral Sir* J. JERVIS, *ſee the following pages.*]

POETRY.

POETRY.

The VILLAGE WEDDING.

From Dibdin's "Caſtles in the Air."

THE village was jovial, the month was May,
The birds were ſweetly ſinging ;
Of Numps and Madge 'twas the wedding-day,
The bells were merrily ringing.
The bridegroom came in his holiday-clothes.
The bride in ribbons as red as a roſe.
Never did revelry ſo abound,
The drums beat and the joke went round.
All manner of inſtruments loudly play'd,
The hautboy ſqueak'd and the baſſoon bray'd.
Then to ſee them all foot it, and jig it, and prance,
Stump, fidget, and reel, in the mazy dance !
Thus, from when the lark roſe till the ſtocking was thrown,
The fun and the friſk, and the paſtime, went on.
Such whim and ſuch frolic ſure never were ſeen,
Till, wond'ring ſo long they had tarry'd,
Young Ralph of the village and Sue of the green
Cry,—What a rare thing to be marry'd!

Now ſcarcely paſt the honey-moon,
Still Numps and Madge are ſinging ;
But not exactly the ſame tune ;
For the bells, her clapper's ringing.
The 'ſquire ſteps in—Numps ſmells a rat ;
Love and dear are chang'd to dog and cat ;
Their love's turn'd to hate, to grief their joys ;
Contentment's ſtrife, and pleaſure's noiſe.
" Say a crooked word, and I'll kill you," cries he !
" Ram's horns, if I die for't," cries out ſhe !
Night and day thus, at victuals, or up or a-bed,
He curries her hide, and ſhe combs his head.
In torment, vexation, and mis'ry, they dwell,
Converting that heaven call'd marriage to hell ;
The neighbours maliciouſly viewing the ſcene ;
While, pleas'd that ſo long they had tarry'd,
Young Ralph of the village and Sue of the green
Cry,—What a queer thing to be marry'd.

At length to make ſport of the bridegroom and bride,
Whoſe jars in droll ditty they're ſinging,
The wags of the village now ſkimmington ride,
While backward the bells they are ringing.
The ladles, the ſkimmers, the broom-ſticks, they weild ;
The porringer-helmet, the potlid ſhield,
The ample ram's horns that ſo grace the parade,
The petticoat rampant ſo proudly diſplay'd,
Denote jars domeſtic and family ſtriſe,
Where the Doll took the diſtaff, the cudgel the wife.
Thus hiſſing, and hooting, and grunting of hogs,
And ſqualling of children, and barking of dogs,
And ſhrill penny trumpets, ſalt-boxes, and bells,
And drums, and cow-horns, and a hundred things elſe,
Compoſe of confuſions the drolleſt e'er ſeen ;
While, charm'd that ſo long they had tarry'd,
Young Ralph of the village and Sue of the green
Cry,—What a damn'd thing to be marry'd.

NAUTICAL PHILOSOPHY.

Written and compoſed by Mr. Dibdin.

I BE one of they ſailors who thinks 'tis no lie,
That for every wherefore in life there's a why ;
That, be fortune's ſtrange weather a frown or a ſquall,
Our lives, good or bad, are chalk'd out for us all ;
That the ſtays and the braces of life will be found
To be ſome of them rotten and ſome of them ſound ;
That the good we ſhould cheriſh, the bad never ſeek,
For death will too ſoon bring each anchor a-peak.

When aſtride on the yard, the top-lifts they let go,
And I com'd like a ſhot plump among them below,
Why I cotch'd at a halliard and jump'd upon deck,
And ſo broke my fall to ſave breaking my neck ;

Juſt like your philoſophers, for all their jaw,
Who, leſs than a rope, gladly catch at a ſtraw:
Thus the good we ſhould cheriſh, &c.

Why now that there cruiſe that we made off the banks,
Where I pepper'd the foe, and got ſhot for my thanks;
What then? ſhe ſoon ſtruck; and, though crippled on-ſhore,
And laid up to refit, I had ſhiners galore.
At length live and looking I try'd the falſe main,
And to get more prize-money got ſhot at again:
Thus the good we ſhould cheriſh, &c.

Then juſt as it comes take the bad with the good;
One man's ſpoon's made of ſilver, another's of wood;
What's poiſon for one man's another man's balm;
Some are ſafe in a ſtorm, and ſome loſt in a calm;
Some are rolling in riches, ſome not worth a ſouſe;
To-day we eat beef, and to-morrow lob's couſe:
Thus the good we ſhould cheriſh, &c.

To the AFFLUENT.

AH! ſtay your ſteps, ye gay, ye affluent, throng,
To whom the woes of hunger never came;
Who tread the velvet path of life along;
Let miſery's friend a kind attention claim!

Think ye, who feaſt, how ſoon that feaſt may end!
Think of thoſe ſoldiers guarding Britain's weal!
Aſſiſt ye them, and gain in heav'n a friend,
By giving that which affluence cannot feel.

Think on their ſons, their wives, ye Britiſh fair!
Ah! grant a mite to ſuccour theſe diſtreſt;
Deign once again a ſilken garb to wear,
And ſo place millions in a ſtate of reſt.

Thus ſhall you merit heav'n's peculiar care,
And while you practiſe virtues all divine,
Lay up thoſe treaſures which you nobly ſpare,
Where free from ruſt each glittering mite will ſhine.

SONNET,

Written on a melancholy anniverſary.

ALL the fair ſcenes that hope ſo fondly plann'd,
Delightful recompenſe for former care!
The potent force of fate's tremendous wand,
At one dread touch, diſſolv'd in empty air:

Maria, lovely, amiable and kind—
She who was all my eager ſoul deſir'd—
Of faireſt excellence in form and mind,
A few ſhort months entranc'd me, and expir'd!

Nor would the tender pledge of hallow'd love,
Whoſe birth, ſo fatal, broke th'endearing tie,
Remain, his ſoft atoning charms to prove,
But to his mother's ſainted ſpirit fly!

Ah! ſacred ſhade, too hard was the decree,
To take my only ſolace, 'reft of thee!

RETROSPECT OF LIFE.

RICHES, chance may take or give;
Beauty lives a day, and dies;
Honour lulls us while we live;
Mirth's a cheat, and pleaſure flies.

Is there nothing worth our care?
Time, and chance, and death our foes;
If our joys ſo fleeting are,
Are we only ty'd to woes?

Let bright virtue anſwer, no;
Her eternal powers prevail,
When honours, riches, ceaſe to flow,
And beauty, mirth, and pleaſure, fail.

AN EPITAPH.

YE few, who, here by contemplation led,
Inſpect the ſtory of the ſilent dead;
Who o'er the early and the aged bier,
Alike can drop the ſympathetic tear;
Survey this ſtone—and pay the tribute due
To him, who once could think and feel like you.
Free from reproach, life's buſy courſe he ran,
Reſign'd to God—benevolent to Man:
Truth, honeſty, and virtue, fill'd his ſoul,
Glow'd in his breaſt, and rul'd without controul.
Though from that breaſt life's vital ſpark is fled,
Though now his body reſts among the dead;
From this cold manſion freed, his ſoul ſhall riſe
To life that wakes for ever in the ſkies.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN OCCURRENCES.

GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

WHITEHALL, *April* 16.

A LETTER, of which the following is an extract, was this day received by the right honourable Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, from General Sir Charles Grey, K. B. dated

Camp before Fort Bourbon, Iſland of Martinico,
SIR, *March* 16, 1794.

IN my diſpatch of the 2d ultimo I had the honour to acquaint you, that the force deſtined for the expedition was then embarked in Carliſle Bay, at Barbadoes; and, having ſailed very early in the morning of the 3d, I have now the ſatisfaction to add, that we are in poſſeſſion of the whole iſland of Martinico, excepting forts Bourbon and Royal, which I hold completely and cloſely beſieged; the latter being, however, entirely in our power to deſtroy at pleaſure.

The troops are in high ſpirits, and generally in good health.—Encloſed are returns of killed, wounded, and miſſing, from the time of landing in Martinico to this date. I have the honour to be, &c.

CHARLES GREY.

General Return of Officers, Non-commiſſioned Officers, Drummers, and Privates, killed, wounded, and miſſing, in the Army under the command of his Excellency Sir Charles Grey, K. B. &c. from the 6th of February to the 15th of March, 1794.

Royal Artillery. 10 rank and file killed; 2 captains, 1 lieutenant, 1 ſerjeant, and 17 rank and file, wounded.

Royal Engineers and artificers. 1 rank and file killed; 3 rank and file wounded.

Light dragoons. 1 rank and file wounded.

1ſt battalion of grenadiers. 5 rank and file killed; volunteer Collis, and 12 rank and file, wounded; 2 rank and file miſſing.

2d battalion ditto. 1 captain, 1 ſerjeant, and 8 rank and file, killed; 2 lieutenants, 2 ſerjeants, and 21 rank and file, wounded.

3d battalion ditto. 1 ſerjeant, and 16 rank and file, killed; 2 lieutenants, and 38 rank and file, wounded.

1ſt battalion of light infantry. 1 ſerjeant, and 4 rank and file, killed; 1 lieutenant, 1 enſign, and 17 rank and file, wounded.

2d battalion ditto. 1 ſerjeant, and 7 rank and file, killed; 3 ſerjeants, 1 drummer, and 21 rank and file, wounded.

3d battalion ditto. 7 rank and file killed; 21 rank and file wounded.

1ſt brigade, 15th regiment. 1 ſerjeant, and 2 rank and file, killed; 4 rank and file wounded.

Ditto, 39th regiment. 1 rank and file killed; 4 rank and file wounded.

Ditto, 43d regiment. 3 rank and file wounded; 1 rank and file miſſing.

2d brigade, 65th regiment. 2 rank and file killed; 11 rank and file wounded.

3d brigade, 6th regiment. 1 ſerjeant killed; 1 ſerjeant, and 1 rank and file, wounded.

Ditto, 9th regiment. 1 colonel killed; one rank and file wounded.

Ditto, 70th regiment. 2 rank and file wounded.

Total. 71 killed, 193 wounded, 3 miſſing.

FRANCIS DUNDAS, Adj. Gen.

Names of Officers killed and wounded.

9th regiment. Colonel Campbell killed.
38th ditto. Captain Mackewen killed.
Royal artillery. Captain Hope wounded.
Ditto. Captain Whitworth wounded.
Ditto. Lieutenant Thornhill wounded.
33d regiment. Lieut. Keating wounded.
44th ditto. Lieut. Holland wounded.
43d ditto. Lieutenant Graham wounded.
60th ditto. Lieut. Schneider wounded.
9th ditto. Lieut. Stopford wounded.
8th ditto. Enſign Toole wounded.
1ſt battalion of grenadiers. Volunteer Collis wounded.
2d battalion ditto. Volunteer Latouche wounded.
1ſt light infantry. Volunteer Davis wounded.

WHITEHALL, *April* 21.

MAJOR GREY arrived this morning at the office of the right honourable Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, with diſpatches from Sir Charles Grey, K. B. of which the following are extracts:

Fort Royal, Martinico, March 25.

Sir, I have the happineſs to acquaint you of the complete conqueſt of this very valuable iſland, the laſt and moſt important fortreſs of Fort Bourbon having ſurrendered to his majeſty's arms at four o'clock in the afternoon of the 23d inſtant; at which time his royal highneſs Prince Edward, major-general of his majeſty's forces, took poſſeſſion of both gates with the firſt and third battalions of grenadiers, and the firſt and third light infantry.

The navy acquitted themſelves with their uſual gallantry, (particularly Capt. Faulknor, whoſe conduct juſtly gained him

him the admiration of the whole army,) carrying the fort by eſcalade about twelve o'clock on the 20th inſtant, under the able conduct of Commodore Thompſon, whoſe judicious diſpoſition of the gun and flat boats, aſſiſted by that ſpirited and active officer Capt. Rogers, contributed materially to our ſucceſs; at the ſame time that the land-forces, commanded by that excellent officer Colonel Symes, critically advancing with equal ardour, forced and entered the town triumphantly, hoiſting the Britiſh colours, and changing the name to Fort Edward.

Immediately after this, General Rochambeau, who commanded in Fort Bourbon, ſent his aid-de-camp with a flag, offering to ſurrender on capitulation, and the terms were finally adjuſted and agreed to on the 22d inſtant, by three commiſſioners on each ſide, the ratifications thereof being ſigned by the commanders in chief on the 23d following; and the garriſon, amounting to 900 men, marched out this morning priſoners of war, laying down their arms on the parade of Fort Royal, and were embarked for France immediately. His majeſty's troops, having marched in, ſtruck the French and hoiſted the Britiſh colours, and changed the name from Bourbon to that of Fort George.

Forts Bourbon and Royal have ſuffered greatly from our fire during the ſiege, and we are diligently employed to put them in a proper ſtate of defence, effectually to ſecure this important acquiſition of territory to the crown of Great Britain. I am reſtoring order as faſt as poſſible, from the confuſion naturally occaſioned by a ſiege, and have the pleaſure to obſerve that every thing in the forts is as tranquil and well-regulated as could be expected in the time. I have the honour to be, &c.

CHARLES GREY.

P. S. I ſend five ſtands of colours, laid down by the garriſon, together with the two colours of Fort Bourbon, to be preſented to his majeſty.

The gallant defence made by General Rochambeau and his garriſon was ſtrongly manifeſted on entering Fort Bourbon, as there was ſcarce an inch of ground untouched by our ſhot and ſhells; and it is but juſtice to ſay that it does them the higheſt honour.

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, *April* 21.

Captain Henry Powlet arrived this morning with diſpatches from Vice-admiral Sir John Jervis, K. B. commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels at Barbadoes and the Leeward iſlands, to Mr. Stephens, of which the following are extracts:

BOYNE, *Fort Royal Bay, Martinique, March* 25, 1794.

Sir, My letter to you of the 16th, by the Roebuck packet, a duplicate of which is encloſed, has made the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty acquainted with the operations of the ſiege until that date; I have the pleaſure to communicate, for their lordſhips further information, that the battery on Point Carriere, which forms the eaſt ſide of the entrance of the Careenage, opened at day-light on the 17th, and with the gun-boats kept an inceſſant fire on Fort St. Louis, while the gun and mortar batteries on the heights played on Fort Bourbon; Lieutenant Bowen of the Boyne, who had commanded the night-guard and gun-boats for a conſiderable time, perceiving a favourable moment, puſhed into the Careenage with the rowing-boats of the guard, boarded the Bien Venu French frigate, and brought off the captain, lieutenant, and about twenty men, who were on-board her, under a ſmart fire of grape-ſhot and muſquetry from the ramparts and parapet of the fort. The ſucceſs of this gallant action determined the general and me to attempt the fort and town of Fort Royal by aſſault, and I directed forty ſcaling ladders to be made of bamboo and ſmall ſtretched cordage, from twenty to thirty-ſix feet long, and ordered the Aſia and Zebra to be held in readineſs to enter the Careenage, in order to batter the fort and to cover the flat-boats, barges, and pinnaces, under the command of Commodore Thompſon, ſupported by Captains Nugent and Riou, while the grenadiers and light infantry from the camp at Soururie advanced with field-pieces along the ſide of the hill under Fort Bourbon, towards the bridge, over the canal, at the back of Fort Royal. This combination ſucceeded in every part, except the entrance of the Aſia, which failed for the want of preciſion in the ancient lieutenant of the port, Monſieur de Tourelles, who had undertaken to pilot the Aſia. Captain Faulknor obſerving that ſhip baffled in her attempts, and the Zebra having been under a ſhower of grape-ſhot for a length of time, (which he, his officers and ſloop's company, ſtood with a firmneſs not to be deſcribed,) he determined to undertake the ſervice alone, and he executed it with matchleſs intrepidity and conduct, running the Zebra cloſe to the wall of the fort, and, leaping over-board at the head of his ſloop's company, aſſailed and took

this important poſt before the boats could get on-ſhore, although they rowed with all the force and animation which characteriſes Engliſh ſeamen in the face of an enemy. No language of mine can expreſs the merit of Captain Faulknor upon this occaſion; but, as every officer and man in the army and ſquadron bears teſtimony to it, this incomparable action cannot fail of being recorded in the page of hiſtory. The grenadiers and light infantry made good uſe of their field-pieces and muſquets, and, ſoon after the ſurrender of the fort, took poſſeſſion of the town, by the bridge over the canal at the back of it, while a ſtrong detachment from the naval battalions at Point Negro, under the command of Captains Rogers, Scott, and Bayntun, in flat-boats, barges, and pinnaces, approached the beach in front. Monſieur Rochambeau did not loſe a moment in requeſting that commiſſioners might be appointed to conſider of terms of ſurrender; and the general and I named Commodore Thompſon, Colonel Symes, and Captain Conyngham, to meet three perſons named by him at Dillon's Plantation, at nine o'clock on the 21ſt, and on the 22d the terms were concluded.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. JERVIS.

An Account of the Number of Officers and Seamen killed and wounded.

One captain, 13 foremaſt-men, killed. Two lieutenants, 1 ſurgeon, 24 foremaſt-men, wounded.

OFFICER KILLED. Captain James Milne, of the Avenger.——OFFICERS WOUNDED. Captain James Tatham, of the Dromedary; Lieutenant Thomas Henry Wilſon, of the Boyne; Lieutenant Thomas Clark, of the Veteran; and Mr. Robert Lindſay, ſurgeon of the Quebec.

From the LONDON GAZETTE.

WHITEHALL, *April* 22.

CAPTAIN CLINTON, aid-de-camp to his royal highneſs the Duke of York, arrived this morning at the office of the right honourable Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, with the following diſpatch from his royal highneſs:

SIR, CATEAU, *April* 18, 1794.

It is with great ſatisfaction that I have the pleaſure to acquaint you, for his majeſty's information, with the ſignal ſucceſs which has attended the general attack made yeſterday by the armies of the combined powers.

According to the plan propoſed, the Auſtrian, Britiſh, and Dutch, armies aſſembled on the 16th on the heights above Cateau, in order to be reviewed by his imperial majeſty; after which the Auſtrian and Britiſh armies paſſed the Selles, and encamped in front of this town, while the Dutch formed their camp in its rear.

At nine yeſterday morning the three armies moved forwards in eight columns. The firſt column, compoſed of Auſtrian and Dutch troops, under Prince Chriſtian of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, advanced upon the village of Catillon, which was forced after ſome reſiſtance, in which the French loſt four pieces of cannon, and from thence proceeded acroſs the Sambre, and took a poſition at Faviil, between the Sambre and the Petite Helpe, ſo as to inveſt Landrecies on that ſide.

The ſecond column, commanded by Lieutenant-general Alvintze, and conſiſting of the reſerve of the Auſtrian army, and with which his imperial majeſty and the Prince of Cobourg went themſelves, proceeded along the high road leading from Cateau to Guiſe, and carried the two villages of Ribouville and Waſſigny, where the enemy were entrenched, and puſhed forward this morning as far as Henappes.

The fourth and fifth columns were formed of the army under my command. Of the firſt of theſe I took the direction, having Lieutenant-general Otto under me. Lieutenant-general Sir William Erſkine commanded the other column. In conſequence of the very great defiles and ravines which we found on our march, my column was not able to arrive at the point of attack till one o'clock in the afternoon.

As ſoon as the cavalry of the advanced-guard appeared upon the heights, the enemy began a very ſevere cannonade, from the effects of which, although very near, they were enabled in a great meaſure to cover themſelves by the natural inequalities of the ground.

Having examined the enemy's poſition, and finding it very ſtrong, I determined to endeavour to turn it by their right, and for this purpoſe ordered the whole of the column to move forwards, under cover of the high ground, leaving only a ſufficient quantity of cavalry upon the heights to occupy the enemy's attention. Strong batteries likewiſe were formed, which kept up a ſevere fire, and protected the movements very conſiderably.

As ſoon as the troops had gained ſufficiently the enemy's flank, the advanced-guard, under Major-general Abercrombie, was directed to begin the attack, and two companies of the light corps of O'Donnel, ſupported by the two grenadier-companies of the firſt regiment of guards

guards under Colonel Stanhope, ſtormed and took the ſtar redoubt, above the village of Vaux, while the three battalions of Auſtrian grenadiers, led on by Major-general Petraſh, attacked the wood, and made themſelves maſters of the works which the enemy had conſtructed for its defence.

The enemy's fire at firſt was very ſevere; but, when the troops approached, they began to retreat on all ſides, and were ſoon put to flight. I immediately detached a part of the cavalry, conſiſting of huſſars, and one ſquadron of the 16th regiment of light dragoons, commanded by Major Lippert of the former corps, round the wood to the right, who completely ſucceeded in cutting them off, took four pieces of cannon and a howitzer, with a conſiderable loſs of men on the part of the enemy; whilſt the cavalry of the advanced-guard on our left, under the command of Colonel Devay, of the regiment of the Archduke Ferdinand's huſſars, purſued them through the wood, and drove them into the village of Bohain, which they evacuated immediately.

Sir William Erſkine was equally ſucceſsful with his column, which was intended, by the villages of Marets and Prémont, to turn the wood of Bohain, in order to facilitate my attack. He met with no reſiſtance till he arrived at the village of Prémont, where he found the enemy ſtrongly poſted; he immediately formed his line, and having detached the brigade of Britiſh infantry, and the Auſtrian regiment of cuiraſſiers of Zetchwitz, with four ſquadrons of Britiſh light dragoons, under the command of Lieutenant-general Harcourt, in order to turn the poſition, he attacked it in front with three battalions of the regiment of Kaunitz, ſupported by a well-directed fire of the Auſtrian and Britiſh artillery of the reſerve, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Congreve, and ſucceeded completely in driving the enemy from the redoubts, where he took two pieces of cannon and a pair of colours. He from thence proceeded to turn the wood with a part of the corps, leaving the reſt upon the poſition at Prémont.

The ſixth ſeventh, and eighth, columns were intended to obſerve the enemy on the ſide of Cambray; the firſt of theſe, compoſed of Auſtrians, and commanded by Major-general Count Haddick, puſhed forward as far as the village of Crevecœur, and detached ſome light troops acroſs the Scheldt, without meeting with any reſiſtance.

The ſeventh column, conſiſting of Auſtrians and Dutch, under the hereditary Prince of Orange, moved forwards upon the high road leading from Cateau to Cambray, and advanced beyond Beauvais with the eighth column, compoſed chiefly of Dutch troops, commanded by Major-general Geyſau, covered the hereditary Prince of Orange's right flank, and moved forwards in front of St. Hilaire. Neither of theſe laſt columns were in the leaſt engaged; but this morning the enemy attacked the Prince of Orange's advanced guard, who repulſed them with great eaſe.

The ſignal ſucceſs which has attended theſe extenſive and complicated operations has determined his imperial majeſty to begin the ſiege of Landrecies; and therefore the hereditary Prince of Orange, who will have the direction of the ſiege, has moved this evening with the greateſt part of his camp from Beauvais, and taken a poſition ſo as to complete the inveſtiture of that fortreſs; while his imperial majeſty, with the grand army, covers the operations of the ſiege on the ſide of Guiſe, and that under my immediate command does the ſame towards Cambray.

What adds greatly to the general ſatisfaction upon this occaſion is, the inconſiderable loſs which the combined armies have ſuſtained, whilſt that of the enemy has been very great. The Britiſh, in particular, have been peculiarly fortunate. The honourable Captain Carlton, of the royals, a young officer of promiſing merit, is the only one we have to regret; nor has any officer been wounded. Of the privates we had three killed and ſix wounded.

The enemy has loſt in theſe various attacks upwards of thirty pieces of cannon, of which nine were taken by the column under my command; beſides the two which were taken by Lieutenant-general Sir William Erſkine.

I have equal ſatisfaction in reporting the ſpirit and good conduct of all the officers and men under my command; but I have particular obligations to Lieutenant-generals Sir William Erſkine and Otto, as well as to Major-general Abercrombie, who commanded the advanced-guard of my column, to Colonel Devay, Major Lippert of the Auſtrian huſſars, and to Lieutenant-colonel Count Merfeldt of the Auſtrian etat major.

I cannot help likewiſe mentioning the good conduct and bravery of Lieutenant Fead of the Britiſh artillery, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf very much by the ſkill and activity with which he directed one of the batteries. I am, ſir, your's &c.

FREDERICK.

WHITEHALL,

WHITEHALL, *April* 26.

A letter, of which the following is a copy, dated Cateau, April 22, 1794, was received on Thurſday laſt by Mr. Secretary Dundas from his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York.

SIR,

On Sunday morning the Hereditary Prince of Orange made a general attack upon the poſts which the enemy ſtill occupied in the front of Landrecies, and ſucceeded in getting poſſeſſion of them all, and in taking by ſtorm their intrenched camp, and a very ſtrong redoubt which they had thrown up at the village of Eloques, within ſix hundred yards of the place. He took advantage of this redoubt to cover the left flank of the trenches, which were opened the ſame evening. Much praiſe is given to the behaviour of the Auſtrian and Dutch troops upon that occaſion.

According to the original plan, adopted before the battle of the 17th, it was determined to withdraw the detached corps of each army as ſoon as the poſition for the inveſtiture of Landrecies was properly ſecured; and in conſequence, the orders were given the night before laſt that theſe corps ſhould retire as this morning.

But yeſterday the enemy attacked two detached corps of the Prince of Cobourg's army at Grand Blocus and Nouvain, under the command of Major-general Bellegarde and Lieutenant-general Alvintze. The Prince of Cobourg ſent to deſire me to ſupport the former, and I marched immediately, with five battalions of Auſtrians and Major-general Sir Robert Laurie's brigade of Britiſh cavalry. I did not, however, arrive till the affair was over, General Bellegarde having repulſed the enemy with great ſlaughter, and having taken four pieces of cannon and one howitzer.

As the enemy appeared in great force on General Alvintze's front, the Prince of Cobourg did not think it proper to ſupport a poſt which was of no importance to him, and which was at any rate to be abandoned that night: General Alvintze was therefore ordered to retire to his poſition in the line, which he did in great order, and with very inconſiderable loſs, although expoſed to the enemy's cannonade.

I this morning received a report from Lieutenant-general Wurmb, who commands a detached corps of the army at Denaing, that the enemy attacked him in great force on Saturday; that at firſt his advanced poſts were obliged to retire, and that the enemy had already got poſſeſſion of the village of Abſcon, and of one of the redoubts on his front; but, upon a reinforcement coming up, the enemy were completely driven back, with great loſs. The Heſſians, however, ſuffered conſiderably, having loſt five officers, and ſeventy men killed and wounded.

General Wurmb expreſſes himſelf highly ſatisfied with the behaviour of the diviſion of the Auſtrian huſſars of Leopold and the Heſſian dragoons de corps.

I am, Sir, &c.

FREDERICK.

PARIS, *April* 6.

Danton, Camille Deſmoulins, Herault, Sechelles, Philippeaux, Lacroix, and Fabre d'Eglantine, having refuſed to anſwer any queſtion propoſed to them by the revolutionary tribunal but in the preſence of their accuſers, Robeſpierre, St. Juſt, and Barrere; and, having inſulted the preſident and members of the revolutionary tribunal, the convention paſſed a decree on the 4th, that, in caſe they ſhould purſue the ſame conduct, they ſhould be condemned without farther trial. In purſuance of this decree, the above deputies having perſiſted in the ſame ſentiments and behaviour, they were all guillotined on the evening of the 5th, except l'Huilleir, who was acquitted.

DOMESTIC AFFAIRS.

ON Wedneſday morning the 23d, the purſers of the Berrington, Princeſs Amelia, and Francis, Eaſt-Indiamen, came to the India-houſe with the agreeable intelligence of ſafe arrival of their reſpective ſhips at Portſmouth. The Worceſter, Captain Hull, from Bencoolen, is alſo arrived at Portſmouth. The above ſhips had not any convoy, and their ſafe arrival has conſequently removed a deal of anxiety from the minds of thoſe concerned. No ſhips of war had arrived in India when the laſt accounts came away, but all the company's poſſeſſions remained in the greateſt tranquillity, and they were under no fear whatever of the enemy at St. Helena. The fleet was under very great apprehenſions of being taken by the French, as they were informed by the commanders of ſeveral American veſſels that the French had a number of frigates in the mouth of the channel: in conſequence of which they lay off Scilly ſome time, and, at a conference of all the

the commanders, it was agreed to ſail for Ireland; but, a freſh breeze ſpringing up, they made for Portſmouth, where they arrived without meeting a ſingle ſhip of their own nation to give them any intelligence. The cargoes of the Eaſt-Indiamen are eſtimated at eight hundred thouſand pounds, excluſive of their private trade.—The Worceſter, which left St. Helena the 17th of February laſt, brings very flattering accounts of the iſland. The ſeaſons of late have proved very favourable, and the increaſe in cattle and ſheep has been very conſiderable. The iſland has been ſtrongly fortified in every part. The governor has placed a buoy off Munden's-Point, for the guidance of ſhips, which are very liable to ſtrike on the rocks as they come round to the bay.

The iſland of Martinico, which we have lately taken from the French, is about forty miles in length and about one hundred in circumference. All ths tropical plants and fruits abound in it. The whole was ſurrendered to the Britiſh arms on the 13th of February 1762, but was reſtored to the French in 1763. Some of the ancient Caribbee inhabitants ſtill remain. The quantity of ſtores taken are more than ſufficient for the capture of the remaining French Weſt-India iſlands; in conſequence of which a great quantity of ammunition is ſtopped, that was going to be immediately ſent from this country for that purpoſe. Major Grey, who brought the diſpatches from thence, is promoted to the rank of lieutenant-col.

As St. Lucia is only twenty-one miles ſouth of Martinico, it is moſt probably long ere this in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh troops.—The number of veſſels captured at Martinico is one hundred and thirty-five; ſeventy-one of which were at St. Pierre, and fifty-four at Fort Royal. Moſt of them were loaded with the produce of the iſland, and are of great value. Sir Charles Grey gave orders for the effects to be ſold on the 10th of April: 30l. per cent. to be paid in caſh, and the remainder in bills on London, to be approved of thirty days after the ſale by the agent. The preſent crops will be late, but good; and the eſtates are in tolerable order. At Fort Royal Bay, in Martinique, there are five thouſand hogſheads of clayed ſugar, and above thirty ſquare-rigged veſſels.—And at St. Pierre, about half that quantity of ſugar, and double the number of ſmaller veſſels, which are conſidered as prizes to the navy and army; the whole property is eſtimated at a million and a half ſterling.

On Friday evening the 18th, at ſeven o'clock died, the venerable and much-reſpected Earl Camden, Lord Preſident of the Council, a Governor of the Charter-houſe, and Recorder of Bath. He is ſucceed in title and eſtates by his only ſon, Lord Viſcount Bayham, member for Bath.

LIST of PRIZES, continued from Page 416.

ON Wedneſday the 23d of April, about day-break, the Arethuſa of 38 guns, Sir Edward Pellew, Knt. the Flora, of 36 guns, Sir John B. Warren, Bart. Melampus, of 36; and La Nymph of 36; fell in with a ſquadron of French frigates off the Iſle de Bas, on the coaſt of France, near the frontiers of Artois, when a ſevere engagement took place, and was continued with great bravery on both ſides for nearly four hours. The Flora and Arethuſa were greatly damaged, the Flora in particular ſo much that they were obliged to get her towed into Portland. Sir Edward Pellew took the Pomona of 40 guns, and another of 22, into Portland Roads. On Friday, the Nymphe, Capt. Murray, who was left in purſuit of the reſt of the French frigates, towed in to Plymouth the l'Engageante, of 28 guns, Captain Le Garthe. L'Engageante is in a complete ſtate of wreck; her main-maſt is gone cloſe in the deck, &c. &c.

The Romney, a Britiſh 50-gun ſhip, caſt anchor at Leghorn on the 25th ult. and brought with her as a prize the Venetian ſhip Il Redemor, from Trieſt to Genoa, laden with corn.

The Experiment letter of marque has taken and ſent into Beaumaris two Daniſh veſſels, laden with wheat and ſtores, bound to Nantz.

The King George letter of marque, belonging to Glaſgow, has taken and ſent into Scilly the Philippa, Captain Rynes, from Bourdeaux to Breſt, with wine, flour, &c. after chaſing her for five hours and an half.

The Daniſh brig, Anne Dorothea, Halſe Hans, maſter, from Longſound, laden with deals, timber, and ſpars, ſaid to be bound to Jerſey, was captured, on Thurſday ſe'nnight, off Alderney, by his majeſty's cutter Pilote, of 14 guns, Lieutenant Gunter, on a preſumption that her cargo was deſtined for France.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.